From a Painting
HUGH CLAPPERTON

Nat. Portrait Gallery
CAPTAIN COOK

Elliott & Fry
SIR W. M. CONWAY

Downey
LORD CURZON

From a Photograph
E. J. EYRE

Elliott & Fry
PAUL DU CHAILLU

Elliott & Fry
SIR JOHN FORREST

Nat. Portrait Gallery
SIR JOHN FRANKLIN

Elliott & Fry
D. W. FRESHFIELD.

DISTINGUISHED TRAVELLERS AND EXPLORERS II

Hugh Clapperton (1788 1827); naval officer; crossed Sahara from Tripoli to Nigeria, 1822–25; again explored Nigeria, 1825–27; died near Sokoto, 1827.

James Cook (1728–1779); naval officer; in first voyage, 1768–71, visited Tahiti, charted coasts of New Zealand, East Australia, and part of New Guinea, circumnavigating westwards; in second voyage, 1772 75, circumnavigated eastwards, disproved existence of Antarctic continent extending into temperate zone; made third voyage, 1776–79, to seek N.-W. passage from Pacific side; discovered Sandwich Islands and surveyed Canadian coast; killed by Hawaiians, 1779.

Sir William Martin Conway (born 1856); Egypt and East, 1889; Himalayas, 1892; Alps, 1894; Spitzbergen, 1896–97; Bolivian Andes and Tierra del Fuego, 1808; knighted 1895.

Lord Curzon of Kedleston (**George Nathaniel Curzon**, born 1859), heir of Baron Scarsdale; Central Asia and Persia, 1888–89; China, Japan, and Korea, 1887 88, 1892 93; Pamirs; Viceroy of India, 1899-1905; baron (in Irish peerage) 1898; earl, 1911.

Edward John Eyre (1815–1901); discovered Lake Torrens (Australia), 1839–40; journey along shore of Australian Bight, 1840 41; governor of Jamaica, 1862 65.

Paul Belloni du Chaillu (1835–1903); Frenchman, naturalized in United States; travelled in French Congo, 1855–59, 1864–65.

Sir John Forrest (born 1847); explored in Australian interior, 1869 74; knighted 1891.

Sir John Franklin (1786–1847); naval officer; North Canada 1819–22, 1825 27; fatal Arctic expedition, 1845; died in Arctic regions, 1847, after discovering N.-W. passage; knighted 1829.

Douglas William Freshfield (born 1845); Himalayas, Syria, Algeria, Caucasus, Armenia, Corsica, Apennines, Alps.

THE WORLD OF TO-DAY

A SURVEY OF THE LANDS AND PEOPLES OF THE GLOBE AS SEEN IN TRAVEL AND COMMERCE

BY A. R. HOPE MONCRIEFF

VOLUME II

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CONTENTS

VOLUME II

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

VOLUME II

COLOURED PLATES

MAPS

TEXT ILLUSTRATIONS

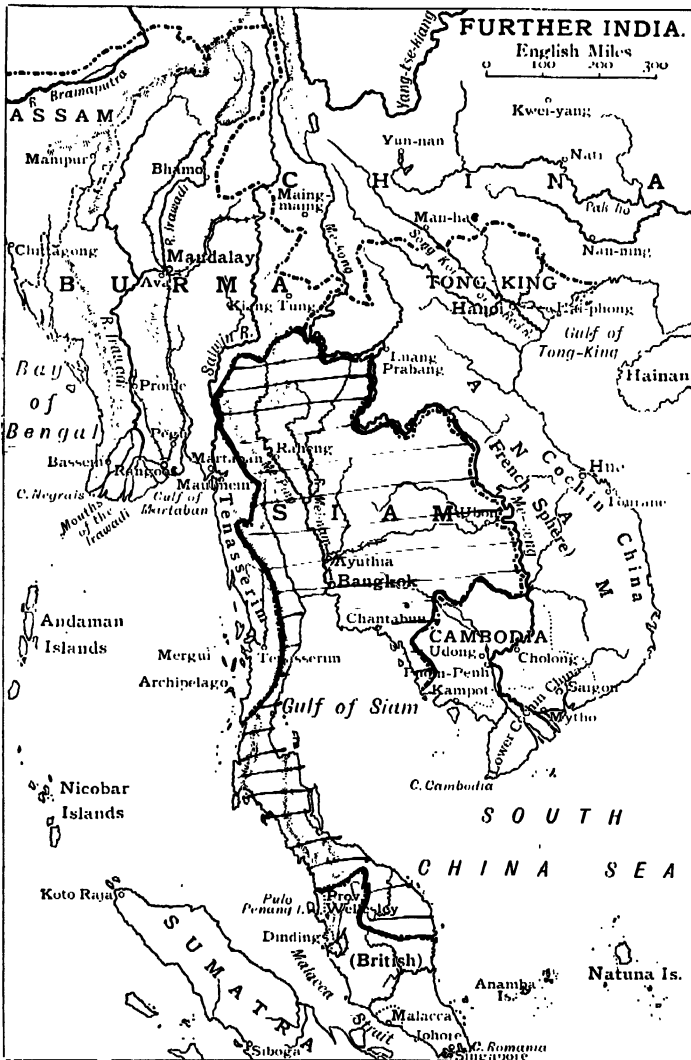
THE EASTERN PENINSULA

To Asia, such a vast continent, in part so well peopled by famous nations, two volumes must be assigned, in which a certain awkwardness of arrangement is at more than one point forced upon us. As far as possible have been brought together countries of merging characteristics; but here and there we are driven to shift our survey more abruptly. In the present volume, after reaching the doubtful boundary line between Asia and Australasia, there is nothing for it but to turn away to the Moslem lands of the Nearer East, which was the Asia of our ancestors. At the outset, our scheme has also what may appear the defect of running the British possessions over from one volume into another, where, in this south-eastern corner of the continent, it seems better to follow geographical than political lines. Yet, not wholly to divorce Burma from the rest of our Eastern empire, it is here presented before a general view of the region to which it belongs, having, indeed, some peculiar features to bear out this prominence, while being in all respects but its government distinct from Hindostan.

BURMA

Further India, as it is sometimes called, now forms a province of our Indian empire, but physically Burma is almost as isolated as sea-girt Ceylon. To the west, it is cut off by wild mountains from Assam, Manipore, and the Bengal territory, as to the east from Siam; these mountains converging upon the eastern continuation of the Himalayas that makes the barrier of China. Other chains, varying in height up to 8000 or 9000 feet, run north and south to shape the courses of numerous streams that unite in the great basins of the Irrawaddy and the Salwen, whose deltas, inter-communicating with that of the shorter Sittang river between them, surround the Gulf of Martaban. Under the name of Lower Burma, during last century we acquired the coast provinces—Arakan, on the Bay of Bengal; Pegu, on its inlet the Gulf of Martaban; and Tenasserim, the long narrow strip extending southwards to the neck of the Malay Peninsula. Upper Burma, which we annexed more recently, was the higher part of the Irrawaddy basin, shut off from the sea by our first conquest, on its mountain borders melting away into the semi-independence of hill tribes, sometimes controlled by China and Siam as effectively as by the Burmese kings. On its east side this inland country broadens out towards the upper course of the Salwen, where a group of tributary Shan states separate our territory from the French Tongking. Else, Burma makes a long strip of mountain and valley, with an area of nearly 300,000 square miles, and a population of over twelve millions,

under British government or protection, exercised through a lieutenant-governor and subordinate commissioners of Upper and of Lower Burma.

The climate is hot and moist, especially on the flat river deltas, where some 200 inches of rain may fall in the year; but on the whole, what with sea-breezes on the coast and elevated land in the interior, it proves not so trying to Europeans as that of India. Some Englishmen even find health here which was denied them under their native clouds; and in the winter season the temperature of the upper country ranges from the sharp morning of our autumn to a summer mid-day glow. A dry zone runs across the central valley region about Mandalay. The damp warmth of the alluvial plains is especially favourable to the cultivation of paddy, so much the staple food of the country that "to eat rice" is the Burmese phrase for taking a meal. A variety of rice that flourishes on dry soil, with cotton and other crops, can be raised among the hills, whose chief wealth is in their forests of timber. The vegetation is much like that prevalent under similar climatic conditions in India, with perhaps a larger share of flowering trees, such as the *Amherstia nobilis*, whose brilliant scarlet tassels are more than a yard long. The same may be said of animal life, from the elephants, more numerous here than in India, to the rats, which sometimes descend from the hills in hungry armies, devastating crops and driving people away from their homes. Certain peculiarities of the Burmese fauna will best be dealt with in a general view of the Indo-China peninsula. The country contains coal, iron, and other minerals, which have hardly yet been drawn upon; but native petroleum is turned to good account, and begins to be exported. The land is mostly worked in small holdings, paying a light tax to Government. On the deltas many natives, as well as imported coolies, earn a livelihood in the

rice-mills and timber-yards, where the chief products are prepared for exportation.

The inhabitants mainly belong to a Mongoloid stock, which in the dim past seems to have been dominated and civilized by Aryan invaders from India, whence also came the Buddhist faith that still flourishes here. Far back we have traces of power and rude grandeur, shown in the sumptuous temples with which this land is richly studded. When Portuguese adventurers first brought reports of it to Europe, the region of the Irrawaddy was torn by wars between

Village Scene in Upper Burma. (From a photograph)

rival kings of Burma and Pegu; and Mendez Pinto became an eye-witness of one of the sanguinary scenes of their struggle that ended in the victory of Pegu, whose name for a time comprised a powerful empire extending over the whole country. This power decayed, then in the middle of the eighteenth century was replaced by a Burmese warrior named Alompra, who founded a new dynasty, powerful enough to make war with its neighbours, Manipore, Siam, and China, even aspiring to wrest Bengal from our nascent supremacy. By this time we had got a footing at Bassein in Lower Burma, where the united Burmese empire held the same predominance as that of the Moguls over Hindostan, strengthened in the former case by the veneration of the people for a ruler who represented religious as well as political supremacy. But the successors of Alompra did not inherit his virtues along with the absolute power of Oriental despotism, that not more surely crushed down their people than emasculated the worthless princes with a taint in more than one case amounting to insanity. In 1824 we came into collision with these demoralized rulers, who, taught by the first Burmese

war how their rabble of slaves were not invincible before trained soldiery, gave up to us parts of the coast-line as well as their pretensions upon Assam and other inland territories. The lesson was thrown away, and in 1852 the second Burmese war led to our annexing the whole coast. The dwindled kingdom, under a less foolish sovereign, had some respite from the disastrous tyranny which again oppressed it; but its fall seemed only a matter of time, when its subjects came flitting over the border to seek the security of British rule, and the insolent and ignorant King Theebaw shocked public opinion by a wholesale massacre of his kinsmen as possible pretenders to the throne. Chronic causes of quarrel brought about the third and last war (1885), in which this tyrannous government was easily overturned; then it took an army of 40,000 men, under Lord Roberts, to suppress the *dacoity* or guerrilla warfare engendered by the disturbed state of the country. Upper Burma was added to our dominion, with little opposition from the mass of a population who had trembled under the drunken caprices that were Theebaw's kingcraft.

It seems strange that such a yoke, of sovereigns often no better than blood-thirsty lunatics, and corrupt satraps significantly known as "province eaters", has left the Burmese a notably cheerful, amiable, and happy-go-lucky people, easily reconciled to our rule, while sometimes, like thoughtless school-boys, inclined to regret the harsh master that laid about him freely, but could be readily coaxed or cheated, and to grumble against the calm justice that puts equal tasks and burdens on all. The Burman is a merry, lazy fellow, fond of all sorts of fun, from football to kite-flying; fondest of gambling, not so fond of work, and least of fighting. Courtesy is his strong point rather than sense of duty. He is such a kindly, sensitive creature that he cannot bear to be scolded; and it has been found necessary to import Sikhs, Goorkhas, and other sturdy Indians to do the stern work of policemen here. There is a certain alertness of mind about him, not matched by his bodily activity unless when play is in question. Something like equality is the rule, there being no native aristocracy to speak of, nor unsociable restrictions of caste, except as affecting executioners, undertakers, lepers, and other objectionable individuals; nor has this easy-going citizen always energy to be much concerned about growing richer than his neighbour. The position of woman is perhaps the most striking feature of the national life. A Burmese woman, unlike most of her Asian sisters, has long had rights such as are only of late aspired to by the sex in Europe. She often makes more of a business-man than her effeminate husband, supporting the whole family by her earnings. She takes most kindly to trade, and even if well-to-do seems to find amusement in keeping a stall in the bazaar, an occupation that may have been familiar to her from childhood. Her one point of inferiority in domestic life, is that she lets her husband eat first, perhaps smoking her cheeroot meanwhile. So attractive and helpful appear some of the Burmese damsels, that it is less unusual than in India for expatriated Englishmen to marry them for better or worse, not to speak of more frequent irregular unions, which, however deplorable from a Christian stand-point, are hardly condemned by the facile morals of the people.

Little restraint being put on the meetings of youths and maidens, they are in the way of marrying young, and for honest love, which sometimes indeed turns sour; then divorce is as easy as marriage. Wedded often in their teens, the Burmese make most affectionate parents, and children have a happy, naked

life of it. Housekeeping expenses are small where "a box on stilts" serves for a house, and a few mats, rugs, and bowls are furniture enough. As the people have a curious objection to anyone lying over them, houses are always one-storied, usually raised a few feet above the ground on teak posts, the walls of bamboo, the roof thatched with palm leaves. Cooking can be done at a fire-box, as often as not out-of-doors; and instead of chimneys on the roofs stand pitchers of water in case of fire, which easily has its way among such slight dwellings; but if burned down, these can soon be built up again. Nor does the Burman's

Photo. Klier, Rangoon.

Praying on the Steps of the Golden Pagoda, Rangoon

food cost much. Rice is the staple of his diet, with fruit and other seasoning, his favourite dainty being a paste of salted stinking fish, for which Europeans are not likely to compete with him in the market. Sometimes he eats worms, rats, and "such small deer"; but his religion forbids a strict Buddhist to kill even a mosquito, and if he catches a fish he should hold it down to gasp out its life, but by no means knock on the head a creature that may be his grandmother in another incarnation. A universal indulgence is smoking, by women, children, and all; a cheroot, a foot long, will go round a whole family, even the baby in arms getting a suck at it. Another is the betel-chewing that disgusts a European by the red foam, the swelling of the mouth, and the blackening of the teeth that attend the use of such a quid, made up from a bit of areca nut, a leaf of betel pepper, and some moistened lime, a paste of spices or tobacco being sometimes added as enhancement of this mixture. Else, their native habits were temperate till we brought among them spirits and opium, with such

demoralizing result upon an excitable and easily-tempted people, that our government is now fain by stringent legislation to counteract the mischief we have done. Water is the national drink; tea being used in the form of a pickle rather than a beverage.

On dress the Burmese are disposed to be a little more extravagant. The garments of both sexes are much alike, the *pièce de resistance* being a long strip of silk,—or cotton for workaday wear,—like the Indian sari, wound round the body, over which may be worn a white jacket; and the flowing hair of man and woman, often eked out by false plaits, is coiled into a top-knot, round which he

Burmese Dance (Yein Peve) Photo. Watts & Skeen, Rangoon.

will tie a coloured handkerchief, and in it she will coquettishly stick a bunch of flowers above the flowery silk scarf that adorns her shoulders. Loose sandals, sometimes prettily embroidered, are the native footgear; but in towns, where well-to-do folk tend to imitate our fashions, European shoes and stockings begin to be a point of uncomfortable dignity; while the country Burman goes most at his ease barefoot. Both sexes bore their ears, the large aperture serving not only for jewels, but as receptacle for a flower or a cheroot. The men sometimes have a slight moustache. The Burmese women have their skirts tightly tucked about the lower part of the body, to uncover the feet being held immodest, so that their gait is a constrained one, as in the case of the Japanese, whom they resemble so closely in other respects; and their dancing may be described as writhing rather than skipping. The opening of this skirt, however, reveals the leg in a way that does not fit our idea of decency. Men, for their part, are proud to tuck up the long kilt they wear, so as to show their legs, decorated by what may be called the most characteristic feature of Burmese costume, a tattooing from

the waist to the knee, in close and elaborate patterns that give the effect of "blue breeches". This operation, performed early in the teens, is so painful that the patient will be stupefied with opium; sometimes it throws him into a fever; yet to a young Burman it seems an object of manly ambition, like growing a moustache with our youth. Hitherto, at least, to be so adorned was held indispensable to success among the ladies; but the rising generation are found readier to shirk such a sore honour, or at least to be content with a smaller patch of tattooing, like our monks' tonsure to represent a shaven head. Other mystic tattooings and insertions of gems or bits of metal under the skin are undergone as charms; there are practitioners who profess thus to make a warrior invulnerable by sword and gun, or prick on a boy's skin a spell against the smart of the cane, armour that does not bear the test of experiment so well as of faith. The tattooing is often quite a work of art. Native artificers, it should be said, show remarkable skill and taste in wood-carving, weaving, jewellery, and the lacquer-work of bamboo boxes which are such a characteristic feature of their simple domestic properties.

For their clothes, the men are much taken by gorgeous checks and other "loud" displays of colour imported from Manchester, while the women show better taste in sticking to their native stripe patterns, woven on hand-looms from silk, of which the best quality must be imported from China. All are fond of bright colours; and a crowd in its best array makes a rainbow-hued spectacle, frequent among a people who love coming together to see and to be seen. Their favourite diversion is a play, performed in the open air by puppets or living actors, at the expense of anyone who wishes to give an entertainment to his friends and neighbours. Like the Chinese, they also show a childish delight in fireworks. Their holiday spirit comes out strong on the religious festivals, when, after having duly performed their devotions at the pagoda, they will turn light-heartedly to swing-boats, roundabouts, and all the fun of the fair that springs up not far off.

The Burmese faith is Buddhism, which in this country has kept its early mould better than in Tartary. Its votaries sincerely worship the quasi-divine being whose calm image so often hushes their careless gaiety to adoration; they accept the satisfying theory that evil is the punishment of sin done in a previous existence; and their hope is, in the end, by right-doing to escape from the struggle of transmigrations to the blessing of a state where the wicked cease from troubling and the weary are at passionless rest. Little troubled by doubt, they are tolerant of others' indifference; and their own orthodoxy is much alloyed by all sorts of petty superstition, which they share with heathen jungle-folk, belief in charms, fortune-telling, witchcraft, and the like. Their churches are the famous pagodas, of which the master feature is a pointed and gilt umbrella roof, surrounded by figures of monstrous beasts, tawdry images, carved shrines, altars for votive flowers and candles; and in the dark centre sits the great Gautama, a model of stony meditation, whose attention is called to prayers or offerings by the striking of a bell or a gong. To build a pagoda, or at least a side chapel, is a high proof of piety, as of worldly success; so all over the country these buildings rise like mushrooms, some of them making solid monuments of royal munificence, while others, of more flimsy materials, soon decay in this damp climate; and temple-repairing, it seems, has little credit among Buddhist good works.

Side by side with the pagodas, often stand the monasteries that, in their

resemblance to those of Catholic Christianity, suggest reflections on the kinship of human nature. The unworldly strain of Burmese character is much in tune with recluse life. Every Burman, before passing out of boyhood, should spend at least a few weeks in a monastery, a "retreat" equal to confirmation, the usual time for which is the rainy summer season kept as a Buddhist Lent. A pious youth will fortify himself against the temptations of life by two or three years of novitiate; then if his vocation seem sure, at twenty he may be received into the honoured ranks of the "phongyees", whose yellow robes and shaven pates command the obeisance and the tribute of every lay believer. Each morning the brotherhood set out in silent procession of "pride that apes humility", carrying round their begging-bowls to be filled with rice or other contributions never denied. By strict rule this collection should be their only food, but, as in other monasteries, relaxations of discipline have crept in, so that the monks often pass over the unpalatably cold collection to their less dainty acolytes, and for themselves prepare a more savoury meal, provided also by the alms of the faithful. They are understood to fast entirely after mid-day. No worldly cares and little work are their lot; they profess to pass their time mainly in devout meditation, which cynical critics do not distinguish from sleepy idleness. But some of them undertake one useful occupation. All over the country the monasteries make free schools, in which, before our annexation, every Burmese boy, while kept out of mischief, got a smattering of the three Rs, and his memory well loaded with the somewhat vaguely edifying precepts of Buddha. Again cynics put it that the chief lesson taught in such a school is laziness; but this popular education appears the strength of Buddhism in Burma. By us it has been developed and supplemented, so that the Burmese are the best schooled of our Asian subjects, taking perhaps too well to that kind of scholarship that turns out a swarm of smatterers, fit for nothing but the methodical clerkship which is their usual outlook, with the hope of some subordinate official post as their most dazzling ambition. Their own language, very difficult to a European, has an alphabet of circular characters, scratched on a palm leaf, or written in white upon black paper, as with a slate-pencil, and now printed in newspapers which find a ready sale.

Shins (Phongyee Novices) with Begging bowls for Food

Such is the main stem of population, on which many grafts have been made. There are Talaings, Karens, Kachins, Chins, and other more or less tamed

tribes, who appear to represent an aboriginal population, and whose native religion is a propitiation of "Nats", easily-imagined spirits, with power for evil rather than good; but the long-oppressed White Karens of the south have shown themselves singularly open to missionary teachings, so that an elementary form of Christian faith flourishes among them, while their ruder neighbours the Red

Approach to the Shway Dagon Pagoda, Rangoon

Karens stand in more need of conversion. There are emigrants from India, who, attracted by the higher rate of wages here, come more and more numerously and spread more widely under our protection. There are Chinamen by tens of thousands, who affect brick houses and prosper in business. There are other sons of neighbouring countries who appreciate the safety and justice of English government. There are Jews, Armenians, and Parsees, forming a transition between the oriental races and the European aristocracy. With most of these the Burmese intermarry freely, so that the seaport towns especially become quite

a hotch-potch of breeds. In Rangoon, not half of its inhabitants, 290,000 or so, are pure Burman.

Rangoon, the capital, stands upon the Rangoon river, one of the branches of the Irrawaddy Delta, here about a third of a mile broad, some 25 miles below opening into the sea with a width of two miles. The city is much grown since its capture by the British, who have given it the hybrid aspect of prosperity in which jingling tramcars contrast with the motley hues of oriental bazaars, and diverse races and craftsmen huddle together, each in their own street or quarter beyond the main thoroughfare, that here borrows the name of the Strand. The lion of the place is its famous Golden Pagoda, the St. Peter's of Buddhism, enshrining not only certain precious hairs of Gautama Buddha, but relics of his still more cloudy predecessors. It crowns in the outskirts a low rising ground, the only height of the alluvial plain, so that its tapering central spire, nearly 400 feet high, and glittering umbrella roof, are visible far around to the pilgrims eagerly approaching it from all over Burma and Siam, even from Ceylon and China. This hill made a fortified position, stormed by our troops; and the temple is now enclosed within a British fort, which does not seem to detract from either its sanctity or its imposing picturesqueness. On a levelled platform it stands, more than 1300 feet square, round which smaller shrines and miniature models appear like seedlings from the main mass. The approach is by stairways at each point of the compass, guarded by colossal dragons in plaster, and more repulsively by living lepers and other loathsome beggars exhibiting their sores to Buddhist charity. The interior is a museum of monstrous figures and images of Buddha, among which flit bats and crows that take toll from the offerings in kind of the worshippers. The whole of the roof gleams with gilding, constantly worn away by the rains but as constantly renewed, it being a work of piety to bring a little packet of gold-leaf and stick a patch on the coat of gold originally applied by royal bounty. At the apex is a golden umbrella, hung about with golden jewelled bells; and one of the dependent chapels contains a venerated bell under which a dozen men could stand, weighing 25 tons, and inscribed with characters of the sacred Pali that is the Latin of this religion.

Next to Calcutta, Rangoon is the chief port of the Bay of Bengal, its main exports being cotton, timber, and especially the rice that in the season yellows the embanked paddy-fields of this moist delta,[1] through which the muddy river arms trickle away in intricate channels to "the low brown coast-line, raggedly fringed with jungle". In the export of teak it begins to rival Moulmein, which

[1] Mr. E. D. Cumings' *In the Shadow of the Pagoda*, one of the most readable books about Burma, thus takes us into the process of preparing a product so familiar in English kitchens:—"Within the godown the air is dust, the noise is deafening, and the air is stifling. Through the befogged gloom you can make out dusky figures, bending, shovelling, and throwing, among mounds of grain in process of measurement. Long lines of coolies, basket on head, are trotting to and fro. The 'hish' of pouring paddy is all around; every man, whatever his occupation, is bawling a word or two at intervals, and in the din who bawls loudest bawls best. In the background, a mountain of paddy, gray with a heavy coating of dust, rises nearly to the roof. On this side there is a path to the top, and coolies are streaming up to add basket after basket; on the other face more coolies have quarried into it to supply the bins, which, as it were, form the ante-room to the mill. From these bins the grain drifts by its own weight into sloping double-sieves, kept in perpetual motion by machinery, and is there separated from sticks, lumps of earth, straw, and stones. The dust from the sieves forms a gray curtain which divides the godown into two; so dense is it that even the coolies keep a cloth tied over mouth and nostrils. From the sieves the grain is caught in the elevators, endless bands carrying small zinc buckets, which run it up to the topmost floor of the mill. Thence it comes down to the 'stones', and from these it goes to the fans, to be separated from the husk and remaining impurities. From the fans the rice—as it may now be called—finds its way to the hoppers on the weighing floor, a few yards from the spot whence it started as paddy, while the husk is diverted down metal gutters polished like silver by the friction, to the furnaces and the creek."

lies on the Gulf of Martaban, to the east, where the Salwen river comes down from its distant Himalayan sources, not far from those of the Indus and the Brahmaputra, and is here joined by a stream, the Attaran, from the hills of Tenasserim, which has the distinction of being the only considerable South Asian river that flows northward. Another river, the Gyaing, also joins the Salwen, where it forks to enclose a large island, opposite which Moulmein makes one of the most picturesque towns of the East. Its mingling of Burmese and English houses extends for over seven miles along wooded hills crowned by gilt pagodas, looking down on green islands and rich paddy-fields; then inland bristle jagged limestone cliffs, honeycombed with enormous caves, which were once elaborate temples, and still, when lit up by a blue light, show huge images of Buddha carved upon their walls. Moulmein has a population of about 60,000, supported by its trade in rice and teak, the latter said to be threatened by wasting of the forest. Up the mountainous course of the Salwen, which in one stretch makes a frontier between Burma and Siam, the slopes are stripped of this valuable timber, to be hauled to the banks by elephants, and launched into the stream that, when swollen by the rains, sweeps them hundreds of miles down to Moulmein, while enterprising natives turn an honest penny by forwarding those that stick on the way, and sometimes a fall in the swirling flood leaves its rocky shelves piled with logs entangled like a game of giant spillikins.

To the south lies Amherst, a coast station, where the merchants of Moulmein seek an airier climate in the hot season. Then beyond, for 400 miles, between the Siamese mountain line and the sea, stretches the narrow coast province of Tenasserim, off whose finely broken shore the mountains reappear in a long string of countless rocky islands, for the most part given up to wild woods and wild beasts first the Moscos group, then the larger Mergui Archipelago, continued southwards along the Malay Peninsula, by islands whose names, "Sugar-loaves" and so forth, are sometimes descriptive. Tavoy, to the north of the Mergui group, is perhaps the best known of these islands through a harbour, which is not an important one in modern commerce; and the Mergui islands have some note for pearl-fishing. Another remarkable group in this archipelago is the Birds' Nest Islands, tall marble rocks picturesquely wreathed with green, and pierced by deep caverns, in which are taken edible swallows' nests for the Chinese market. The town of Tenasserim, that gives its name to this province, is a mere fishing village, and there are no others of any consequence.

Between the mouths of the Salwen and of the Irrawaddy is that of the shorter Sittang, draining the valleys of Pegu. The whole coast here is a network of connected waterways, where boats are more useful than carts; but there is no good harbour for large vessels, so that the town of Pegu has fallen from its once high estate, as has Martaban opposite Moulmein. Bassein on its river, and Akyab on the open Bay of Bengal, are the chief ports of Arakan. On the banks of the delta-mouths forming such harbours are the paddy-mills, at which fleets of boats discharge their cargoes of rice, to be freed from the yellow husk, that for miles makes a scum on the stream. A railway has now been constructed to Bassein; and from Pegu, on the main Rangoon-Mandalay line, a branch is passing round the head of the Salwen estuary to Martaban, opposite Moulmein. Bridging the streams, one supposes, must be the chief expense of railway-making in this flat region.

The largest and richest part of Burma lies on the Irrawaddy, which let us now trace upwards from Rangoon to Bhamo, near the Chinese frontier. So far it is navigated by regular steamboats; and to Mandalay, more than half-way up, a railway runs by the Sittang valley. Another line goes from Rangoon to Prome, on the Irrawaddy, above which begins Upper Burma. This is a very ancient city, said once to have enclosed a circuit of over 30 miles, and still a place of some consequence from its position in a fertile plain, shut in by heights that long ago were islands on the coast-line, now extended by alluvial deposits for 200 miles below, where the delta mud goes on banking itself out into the sea.

On the River Bank: Bullock Team hauling a Log of Teak

The Irrawaddy, "Elephant River", is one of the largest bodies of water in Asia, above its delta making a stream often miles in width, now pent in between mountain gorges, now edged by shallows, or washing plains over which it floods far and wide in the rainy season, to leave pestilential swamps behind it. Even at its lowest, navigation is not difficult with care, steamers being tied up at night. All day the river is lively with wood-rafts, canoes, and the remarkable Burmese boats, with their high carved sterns and enormous sails, drifting down between the groves and bamboo villages on the banks, above which often rise forest-clad hills. The scenery in winter, says Mrs. Ernest Hart, one of the latest travellers here, "recalls at one time the lochs of Scotland, at another Killarney or the English lakes. . . . The feathery undergrowth of bamboo gives a yellow basis to the forest trees, which pass from greens and russets to positive scarlet; and the brilliant costumes of the people, and the colours of sky and water, are all blended and mellowed in the intense sunlight." A striking feature is the profusion of monuments of past grandeur, pagodas by the thousand, and sumptuous remains of royal state. Between Prome and Mandalay are the ruins

of Pagahn, that once covered the ground for miles with thousands of magnificent temples and other buildings. Higher up, the Chindwin river, draining the Lushai and Manipore mountains to the north-west, comes in at a maze of channels broken by islands, where on the other bank is Myingyan, one of the most flourishing commercial centres of native Burma, to which a branch has been made from the Mandalay railway. Thence the main stream bends back eastward to Ava, ancient capital that long gave a name to the kingdom, but has now fallen into ruins. Opposite is Sagaing, with its temples, making what has been described as a "uniquely Burmese" scene.[1]

Sagaing, as well as Ava and Amarapoora, a little higher up, were all for a time seats of the Burmese despotism, till about half a century ago a new royal city was built a few miles off at Mandalay, a number of human beings, it is said, being buried alive under its gates as a foundation for good fortune, a savage custom of which traces turn up in Europe also. Later on, by way of averting some ill omen, Theebaw was believed to have ordered 600 victims for the same fate, a rumour that caused the city to be deserted by its panic-stricken inhabitants. Our government officers occupy this tyrant's walled citadel, where his carved and gilded palaces already begin to decay, round a tall spire in the central mass rising above the throne of "Golden Foot", as the Burmese monarchs styled themselves. From Mandalay Hill one has a wide view over the new city now springing up, that under British protection should prove more permanently prosperous than the successive capitals of that gorgeous kingdom. All around there is the usual profusion of sumptuous temples and monasteries, at one place a whole cemetery of pagodas, hundreds in number. The adjacent ruins of Amarapoora make a wilderness of such fanes and of monstrous shapes overgrown by jungle. At Mengohn, across the river, one of the kings had the ambition of building the largest pagoda in the world; and though it was only carried out to a third of the design, the incomplete structure, rent as it is by an earthquake, makes one of the largest known piles of brick, beside which has now been rehung an enormous bell weighing 90 tons. With the exception of one at Moscow, this appears to be the greatest bell in the world.

In bell casting and the making of gongs the Burmese are masters. We have shown them a specimen of Western craft on the railway beyond Mandalay, which is being pushed on towards the Chinese frontier, and gives access to Maymyo, a hill station that may be styled the Simla of the Burmese government, though at a much lower elevation than the Himalayan sanatorium. On this line has been recently constructed what boasts to be the highest viaduct

[1] "Every hill is crowned by flashing white cupolas, whose gilded spires and *htees* gleam in the burning sunlight. Long, straight flights of white stone steps with high balustrades seam the wooded hills and conduct pilgrims to the sacred fanes on the heights. One great white mass, in the form of a crescent, perched on the summit of a hill about 500 feet high, to which a broad and stately flight of stone steps leads up from the town, looks most imposing from the river. But however impressive is the view from below, it proves far more attractive to those who, braving the Burmese sun, toil up the glittering white steps to the platform of the pagoda of the 'King's Victory'. Beneath flows the broad and placid river, spotted with wooded islands, sweeping northwards till it is lost among the rose-tipped peaks of the Ruby-mine mountains. . . . The town of Sagaing lies immediately beneath, greatly shrunk from its former extensive walls, and almost buried in the luxuriant growth of umbrageous tamarind-trees. Extending for miles from the hill on which we stand, every knoll and point of the wooded hills are surmounted by white pagodas, and every nook shelters a carved phongyee-kioung (monastery) standing in a grove of plantain and palm trees. The hills are scarped with paved paths, which lead through the woods from pagoda to pagoda; and the sacred buldings which are perched on the steepest summits are approached by flights of stone steps, in the same way as those overlooking the river. Truly this is one of the most beautiful, extraordinary, and interesting views the world can show, particularly when seen towards the witching hour of sunset, when land and water and sky are bathed in light and colour which no brush can portray."
—Mrs. Ernest Hart's *Picturesque Burma*.

in the world, a gigantic trestle bridge, over 2000 feet long and 320 feet above the deepest part of the gorge, built by an American company with 5000 tons of steel. Another railway crossing the river near Mandalay goes to Shwebo, and up the Irrawaddy valley to Myitkyina, 720 miles above Rangoon. A branch of the latter line connects the Irrawaddy with the Chindwin, and may some day reach India through Assam, these railways, of course, being made to create or develop a commerce as yet in its beginnings.

A hundred miles or so above Mandalay are the ruins of Tagoung and Old Pagan, which appears to have been the most ancient city of Burma. To the

Photo, Johnston & Hoffmann

Among the Four-hundred-and-fifty Pagodas of the Law, Mandalay

east here lies the Ruby Mountain district, with Mogok for its centre, from which the Burmese kings are believed to have drawn no small revenue; but the ruby-mines perhaps owed their fame to the mystery thrown about them by jealous seclusion. They are now being worked by European capital and enterprise, under difficulties that may be guessed from the fact that electric machinery introduced here was forwarded, for the last stage of the way, at the rate of a mile a day. Sapphires also are found; and farther north are valuable supplies of jade, held in high esteem for ornaments by the Chinese. It is too soon to say what may prove to be the value of the Burmese gems, as to which late reports are encouraging. The mountain ranges on either side are full of timber and mineral wealth awaiting discovery and exploitation. It is said that the teak forests within reach of transport are giving out; but they now come under regulation by such a department as has rewooded parts of India; and luckily this stout timber grows fast. In the valleys are stretches of fertile land that need only order and means of communication to become prosperous.

For long there have been roads of trade between North Burma and China, and the design to open these two countries more freely to each other seems fraught with benefits for both. The recent unhappy events in the latter country, however, not to speak of natural difficulties, have not encouraged the project for an international railway, but a light rail reaches the Chinese frontier from Bhamo, up to which the steamers run some thousand miles above Rangoon. This place is about fifty miles from the Yunnan province of China, and has Chinese traders for its inhabitants. Here the Irrawaddy is joined by the Taiping river, rising in China, whose valley makes a road for commerce. For some distance north of this Burma still runs up between the mountain frontier of Assam and that of China, in a tongue of hill country little known except as inhabited by robust, yet not savage, tribes, that may strengthen the fibre of a population which appears to need only a little more vigour of mind and body to become a southern Japan.

INDO-CHINA

In Burma we have entered upon the eastern peninsula, which, for lack of a better name, is known as Indo-China—an appropriate one in respect of this region's being by climate and productions akin to India, while it takes the colour of race and religion rather from China. Politically, Burma excluded, its character is the intrusion of France, which, a century after retiring from the field of ambition in Hindostan, has undertaken to found a new colonial empire upon the effete kingdoms of the Far East. In the north of the peninsula are the Shan communities, broken shreds of a once-powerful state, whose quasi-independence has been more or less qualified by submission to the bordering powers, and grows more important as a separation between our dominion and the French colony of Tongking, which touches China. Hence the long coast-line of Annam, under French protection, extends to Cochin-China, the southern colony of France, behind which Cambodia is also controlled by her as the Indian native states are by our Government, an ascendency gained through much the same high-handed methods as have served us in India. In the centre is the nominally independent kingdom of Siam, that unfortunate "buffer state", encroached on and dictated to by France, against whom she has looked in vain for support to England, and has reason to regret her position between two such masterful neighbours, more than once like to come to blows over her helpless body. The Siamese territory extends down into the Malay Peninsula, which geographically and ethnographically falls to be treated in another section. The climate is more generally moist than that of India, but has also its markedly wet season in summer. The sun-heat in the south is reported to range to nearly 150°, while in the north the thermometer may sometimes come down to between 40° and 50°, or still lower in the uplands. In the malarious deltas, even with an average temperature of 80°, Europeans soon lose health and energy.

This region is not so thoroughly known, nor are its resources so well developed as in the case of India. Its general features may be briefly stated before entering on an account of its divisions. Separated from India by high mountains that part the basins of the Brahmaputra and the Irrawaddy, and from China by the eastern continuation of the Himalayan range, on other sides it presents

a much more broken coast-line than that of its neighbour peninsula. It is traversed by ranges of mountains, usually running north and south, which is thus the direction of its chief rivers. Of these have been already described the Irrawaddy and the Salwen. In Siam the main stream is the Meinam, pouring into the Gulf of Siam the waters of several tributaries from the north of the peninsula. Farther east comes the great delta of the Mekong, sometimes known as the Cambodia river, greatest of the Indo-China water-courses, with a course of thousands of miles from the same Tibetan highlands in which rise the Brahmaputra and the Yang-tse-kiang. The basin of the Mekong is cut off from the coast by the mountain-line of Annam, outside of which only short streams run eastward. In the broader bed of Tongking there is room for larger rivers, the principal of them, the Sang-koi or "Red River", joined by the "Black River", both flowing from the Chinese mountains, their current, except where broken by rapids, being navigable for some hundreds of miles. All these streams break up to reach the sea by diverging and intercommunicating branches, so that it is sometimes hard to pick out the main channel. Some of them have puzzling aliases, or still more perplexing namesakes, accounted for by such words as "kong" or "kiang" being generic names for a river, the untravelled inhabitants on whose banks took for granted there was no other river worth mentioning, just as a Glasgow man will speak of going down *the* water.

The whole region is roughly called 600,000 square miles, with between thirty and forty millions of inhabitants. To classify these with discrimination would be a difficult task, full of controversy for ethnologists, who are hardly yet in a position to dogmatize upon the origin of tribes half-hidden among their thick forests and labyrinthine mountains. Enough to say that the main stratum seems to be Mongoloid, with perhaps more than one aboriginal race cropping up here and there, and deposits of Caucasian invasion that has left the ruins of an ancient culture long overgrown by the rank jungle of superstition and mental slavery. In the north, customs and belief are strongly coloured by Chinese influences; in the south, the population shades off into Malay features. In the mountainous interior is best rooted a certain native vigour of mind and body, but these are the parts last to come in contact with European example that may develop such promising qualities. In general the inhabitant of this peninsula may be called languid, unenterprising, courteous if not always serviceable towards strangers, lazily loyal to his social idols, and dulled by the dreamy platitudes of his Buddhist faith. What literature he has seems to be of Pali and Sanscrit, or of Chinese origin. We have seen how the monasteries serve as schools, whose scholars are not often given to reading in after-life, nor have much to read beyond the sacred precepts which they learn by heart as the chief result of education; the priests themselves can seldom interpret their own Pali scriptures. This unbookish people are very fond of stage plays, which those who can follow them report as making better schools of manners than of morals, and of fable than of history. They have also a taste for a somewhat melancholy music, and use several instruments, among which are noticeable the huge reed-pipes or mouth-organs of the hill tribes.

The past greatness of Buddhism is attested by the many pagodas and images of Gautama, sitting or lying, some of colossal size. His shrines, heavily

topped with tall spires, horn-like peaked arches, and masses of overlapping roofs, are within and without fantastically ornamented by gilding, carving, painting, or figures in relief, sometimes by broken china stuck on in plaster so as to form a coarse mosaic picture. Some such displays of art are buried in subterranean temples, feebly lit by openings through which bats and monkeys flit as the most familiar visitors. As elsewhere, though not to the same extent as in Tibet, this religion has degenerated into dry formalism and mechanical devotion. Idle monks increased so much in Siam—in one district they were said to number an eighth of the population—that the king lately undertook to play Henry VIII among their foundations. In some villages are still found as many pagodas as dwellings. A *sala* for the entertainment of strangers is a frequent feature, bespeaking a hospitable disposition; and if this be wanting, the traveller is often made free to lodge in the pagoda, where its parishioners do not scruple to smoke, chew, and chat, without much regard to our ideas of reverence.

Photo. J. Thomson

Siamese Actors

Stone, brick, and carved wood are used for such sacred buildings, and for the better houses; but the ordinary abode is a simple hut of bamboo, thatched with palm-leaves, fastened together by rattans, such as can be run up in an hour; and a few baskets and mats are furniture enough. Simple, too, are ways of life, where few care to toil for much beyond its cheap necessaries, rice the most common of them, several varieties being cultivated. The people keep an inferior breed of cattle, very liable to be swept away by disease, and small ponies; pigs and poultry also are among their belongings. Sheep are rare. The naked water-buffalo is another domesticated animal, that serves as a plough in plashing up the muddy rice-grounds.

The common dress is a skirt that may be tucked up between the legs so as to form loose breeches, another strip of silk or cotton may wrap the upper part of the body, and in some parts a parasol-like straw hat tops off the airy costume. Weaving, dyeing, and embroidering are native arts, as is the making of silver ornaments in which the women delight, in some tribes replaced by coloured beads. Tattooing is common, chiefly among the Burmese and certain hill tribes, one having the custom of covering their women's faces with a pattern like a mask. More often men and women dress and look much alike, hardly to be known from

each other, say some critical travellers, in their equal ugliness of swarthy flat features and teeth blackened by betel, that universal indulgence, as is the smoking of cigars or leaf-wrapped cigarettes, and occasionally the use of fermented toddy-juice or spirit made from rice. Certain of the hill tribes have a more fair and pleasing aspect, with rougher and manlier manners than the cringing lowlander. The position of women is nearly always a high one by Asiatic standards. On the other hand, a feature of backwardness is the prevalence of slavery, free men selling their wives and children, and themselves liable to be sold for debt as well as for crime into bondage, which in most cases appears to have been so regulated by law and custom into such kindly domestication that slaves, when released, are not always willing to leave their masters. Only in our time has slavery been forbidden over the more civilized regions, and in the wild interior it proves hard to break some tribes of their man-hunting habits.

The fauna of Indo-China differs little from that of India. Elephants are more plentiful here, caught and tamed as in India and Ceylon, and trained to various tasks. In the interior they take the place of camels in commercial caravans. One of the sights of Rangoon or Moulmein is the extraordinary skill and intelligence shown by them in the teak-yards, where they may be said to handle logs with their trunks and tusks as deftly as they bring their huge strength to bear upon such burdens. A notable point is the reverence paid here to the so-called white or Albino elephant, which should rather be called the light elephant, for his peculiarity usually goes no farther than gray or flesh-coloured patches, perhaps caused by some such excoriations as have called forth blessings on a Duke of Argyll. Mr. Carl Bock describes one admired for a prodigy of lightness, as being a pinkish brown with a few white hairs; Sir John Bowring calls another coffee-coloured.

In such a frame is supposed to be lodged the spirit of Gautama Buddha, or of dead kings; so at the court of Siam, and of other Indo-China potentates, the rare specimen lives cherished as a treasure, richly lodged, sumptuously fed by obsequious dignitaries, and escorted by humbler members of his own species, ranking indeed almost as one of the royal family. To the people this creature is a walking idol, and any belittlement of his sacred character makes a very sore point. When the smart Mr. Barnum sent out to Siam for a white elephant, the king indignantly refused to deal in so illustrious flesh; and one at length secured by the showman's agent, regardless of expense, died before embarkation, poisoned, it was believed, by some fanatical worshipper — "there is no way but this!" The king of Burma proved more compliant; he agreed to part with one of his sacred stock for a fancy price, but on condition that it went attended by two Buddhist priests, who might intercede for the sacrilege of its surrender. Another showman had the impudence to exhibit a chalked white elephant in a circus at Bangkok, a kind of spectacle very much admired here in spite of the short skirts of female performers that shock native propriety. The scandalized audience, discovering that cheat, prophesied divine vengeance on such impiety; and, in fact, both elephant and exhibitor are stated to have died shortly afterwards. The white elephant is the badge of Siam, where fierce wars have been waged for the possession of one. White monkeys and white ravens also are held in like reverence, no doubt through their rarity, as white horses were by our Teutonic ancestors. Even ordinary elephants may be treated as sacred. Mr. A.

Colquhoun mentions a case in which two hundred had been set free as consecrated to a certain pagoda, with the result of becoming a terror to the country.

The rhinoceros, both one-horned and two-horned, inhabits the wooded swamps here, as only the borders of India; and it appears that this clumsy, fierce creature, too, is sometimes trained to serve as a beast of burden. Buffaloes abound, loving to bury their almost naked carcasses, gray or pink, among the mud—cool refuge from insect tormentors—with little more than their horns and nostrils in the air. Even the tame ones often show a curious dislike to Europeans, making ill-tempered demonstrations against a white face, while they let

"Elephants a-pilin' teak"

Photo. Klier, Rangoon

a native child drive them like cows. It has been asserted that the true buffalo is not found wild east of the Irrawaddy, yet the captive breed must sometimes run loose in districts often depopulated by war and pestilence. The *tsin* or wild ox is said to be the best game of the peninsula, and the wild boar is not the least formidable. Sambur and other deer give better sport to the race of cats than to the people, who feed rather on the fish that abound in the streams; yet some of them make bold hunters where a hunter must be bold. Tigers are very common, and seem to prove more dangerous neighbours to man than in India, so much so that in some parts huts are built in the trees as a refuge from them. "*He*", says the shuddering native, hardly daring to pronounce the name of this evil genius, whose teeth are worn as amulets, and his praises may be found placarded on coloured paper to turn away his wrath from a house; or an altar is erected to him rather than to the manes of his victims. But in strong parties, which he is not likely to attack, the people hurry noisily past his haunts,

thinking to make assurance sure by shouting out abuse against the tiger, his grandmother, and other female relatives. The "black tiger", which seems to be a panther, is particularly dreaded.

Among other scourges of the dense jungles, perhaps exaggerated by native timidity, is the hamadryad serpent, twice as long as a man, which is said to follow and chase down anyone unfortunate enough to have provoked it. The race of cobras and other venomous snakes becomes here strongly reinforced by huge pythons, popularly known as boas, which, like the true boa-constrictor of South America, twine themselves round their victim and crush it to death before swallowing it at ease. On the coast of Tenasserim the fishermen keep tame pythons, taught to make a happy family with the dog, the cat, and the baby. Their service is as weather prophets, lying sleepily coiled up in the bow of the boat so long as all is serene, but if a storm should be brewing they give warning by slipping overboard and making their way to shore. Harmless green tree-snakes and active lizards abound; and one such creature gets the name of *tuctoo* or *tookay* from his peculiar note, which it is thought lucky to have about a house. The woods breed giant spiders and scorpions, blood-sucking leeches, poisonous centipedes, harmless millipedes, more appalling to behold, and red ants that sting like fire. The coast is ill-famed for a particularly large and greedy race of mosquitoes. Huge hills of white ants, raised above the floods, are looked upon as sacred from their resemblance to pagodas. Ant-eaters, porcupines, turtles, figure in their clumsy way among the inhabitants of the peninsula; and one of its exports is the kind of swallows' nests that count as such a delicacy among the Chinese, found, however, more thickly on the islands and the coasts of the Malay promontory.

Cruel crocodiles infest the deltas, as sharks and deadly water-snakes the seas.[1] On the coast of the Malay Peninsula is one water-lizard so large as sometimes to be mistaken for a crocodile. Fish abound over all this well-watered region, and enter largely into the food of the people, who themselves take to the water like otters, usually swimming from childhood as a matter of course. On the fish flourish real otters, as well as flocks of cormorants, pelicans, herons, king-fishers, and other winged disciples of Izaak Walton; and the "gentle craft" needs so little art that sometimes fish will save the native piscator trouble by leaping into his boat.

Brightly-plumaged birds and insects that appear weighed down by the richness of their wings, are often confused among the flowering trees and the festoons of orchids and other climbers by which these become almost strangled. Common is the sacred lotus, that in its season half hides its watery bed with a show of pink petals. The hills have a thick skin of vegetation, veined by deep

[1] The crocodile seems the last animal with which any idea of fun can be associated, but M. Mouhot, the French naturalist, who explored this country at the cost of his life, gives an amusing sketch of high jinks played with a crocodile by monkeys. "A troop of apes catch sight of him, seem to consult together, approach little by little, and commence their frolics, by turns actors and spectators. One of the most active, or most impudent, jumps from branch to branch till within a respectful distance of the crocodile, when, hanging by the claw, and with the dexterity peculiar to these animals, he advances and retires, now giving his enemy a blow with his paw, at another time only pretending to do so. The other apes, enjoying the fun, evidently wish to take part in it; but the other branches being too high, they form a sort of chain by laying hold of each others' paws, and thus swing backwards and forwards, while any one of them who comes within reach of the crocodile torments him to the best of his ability. Sometimes the terrible jaws suddenly close, but not upon the audacious ape, who just escapes; then there are cries of exultation from the tormentors, who gambol about joyfully. Occasionally, however, the claw is entrapped, and the victim dragged with the rapidity of lightning beneath the water, when the whole troop disperse, groaning and shrieking."

water-courses; and the rank jungle always threatens to close back upon clearings for cultivation. The monarch of these forests is the teak that, often in solitary state among a crowd of humbler trunks, rears its head to nearly a hundred feet, loaded with "elephant-ear" leaves more than a foot long. Ebony, rosewood, eaglewood, and other rich growths are found, as well as those that yield valuable juices. The most generally useful timber is the easily-cut bamboo; and the rattan creepers lend themselves to many purposes of man, the stronger stems making ropes, while the slighter ones can be woven into baskets. Various palms

Photo. Lambert & Co.

Ploughing with Buffalo in the Paddy-field

supply food, sugar, and intoxicating drink as in India. Fruit is a cheap luxury where bananas grow like fir-cones, pine-apples like turnips; and among kinds unknown in temperate climes, the hills bear wild cherries, apples, peaches, and even blackberries. Most of the fruits found in India are native here. As we saw in Burma, rice is the chief harvest on the cultivated plains; but maize, sugar, cotton, indigo, and tobacco grow richly, and other crops could be raised if a market opened for them. Tea is native on the interior hills, and the French have introduced the growth of coffee with other exotic plants.

The peninsula seems to be rich in neglected mineral wealth,—not always neglected, indeed, for at the courts of Siam and Burma gold and jewels figured richly in royal state, and we have seen how gilding is the common adornment of pagodas. The semi-civilized kings issue a coinage, usually of silver, which is mined for at different points. Copper, iron, tin, and coal mines have been opened by European or by Chinese enterprise; jewels are sought for; some parts are said to be rich in antimony; and if the French do their part on one side, as we may be trusted to do on the other, Indo-China bids fair to yield no small share of

natural resources. Its trade, even where Europeans are predominant, is much in the hands of the Chinese, who show such readiness for emigrating to lands where they are so able to thrive without being masters, and here have filled much the same place as the Jews in Russia, while also supplying an element of sinewy labour, as foreign to the natives as commercial enterprise.

DIVISIONS OF INDO-CHINA

ANNAM

When the French, now over half a century ago, entered on their career of acquisition on the east coast, the predominant power was the kingdom or empire of Annam. Once a vassal of China, this province had achieved its independence, keeping a form of Chinese civilization, a corrupt Chinese language and literature, and a Buddhist faith alloyed by Confucianism and ancestor worship, as well as by baser superstitions. As restricted by French partition, the country makes a narrow strip, 900 miles long, between the sea and the mountain walls of the Mekong valley, arid and rugged on their eastern face, but more verdurous on the other side exposed to the south-west monsoon. This is now styled a Protectorate, the native dynasty, after a good deal of natural recalcitration, seeming reconciled to play such a part as that of our dependent Nizams and Maharajahs. At each end of the kingdom, its richest provinces have been turned into what it pleases the French to call colonies. All over it they are practically masters, coining silver piastres to take the place of rude coins of zinc or copper pierced through the middle, which, strung upon slips of bamboo, made the cumbrous Annamese currency; and teaching the mandarins to pass examinations in their native tongue transposed into European characters, while the town population learn from the soldiers a *petit nègre* dialect that serves for international communication, like the more widely known "pidjin-English" of China.

At his capital, Hué, the puppet king of Annam rules under the eye of a French resident, whose countrymen here are mostly officials or soldiers, with a sprinkling of traders and missionaries; but a recent traveller, M. Monnier, can report that there is one French colonist, who carries on commerce and coffee-planting. The population of the city is variously put between 40,000 and 100,000; it is indeed a conglomeration of villages about a walled centre upon an island, which was fortified by French engineers long before France came to be dominant here. Hué stands some way up a narrow river, its mouth defended by forts, which easily fell before the French when internal factions called in their interference; also by a bar which makes the port inaccessible more often than not. The country behind has some fine scenery in the valleys and slopes joining the coast plain to the mountains, where one comes upon the many secluded tombs built for themselves by the princes of Annam, sometimes in their lifetime, like that anticipatory monument of the late Lord Esher.

About 40 miles to the south, the Bay of Tourane makes a harbour both for European steamers and Chinese junks, where is growing a French town of streets and boulevards, joined to the capital by rail. Behind Tourane rise the celebrated Marble Mountains, which are in fact only three hills a few hundred feet

high, whose sharp outlines, in that enchanted air, take on an imposing aspect. M. Monnier compares them to "three gigantic sphinxes crouching on the threshold of the desert". Pierre Loti, in his poetical prose, gives an account of a visit to these heights, bristling with marble spires, studded with tombs, tangled over with verdure, through which marble steps lead upwards to a silent pagoda, horrid with claws and horns; then higher still are the entrances to huge subterranean temples, dimly lit by an emerald glow through creeper-choked apertures, the vaults peopled by solemn idols, some of them giant figures mounted on night-

Photo. J. Thomson

Annamese Garden and Draw-well

mare monsters, which they seem to rein in to let the stranger pass into a deeper gloom of religious awe, broken on by monkeys that chatter from the green sunlight above.

A more practical sign of culture is the old Mandarin Road, improved by the French, that leads along the coast from Hanoi, through Hué, to Saigon in the southern colony. Under the name of "tram", which suggests such different notions to our ears, a regular service of posts and porters is kept up along it, so that one can travel thus for hundreds of miles, with views on one side of the jagged mountain range, on the other of the rocks and sand-hills of a broken coast. Sometimes a well-made road, sometimes a path of rocky steps, sometimes a muddy lane among the paddy-fields, or again a sandy track along the dazzling beach, this way, now marked by French telegraph-posts, has for its stations the tea-houses where travellers may repose, and the pagoda at which, not without an offering to the bonze, they burn a few joss-sticks and a written prayer to be delivered from tigers and other perils of a journey. As to the villages that may be passed, M. Monnier says that to see one is to see all—a double row of small

huts, more like bird-cages than houses, the road between swarming with fat pigs, naked urchins, and the fowls that bring the name of Cochin China to Europe; the public buildings, a covered market and a small pagoda, quaintly decorated in Chinese taste, within which a big-paunched Buddha sits enthroned among cobwebs, a gaping tiger perhaps coarsely daubed on the wall behind him. Villages and separate houses are often hidden among trees and prickly hedges, by which the householder of Annam seems to hint that he is not much "at home", but when one can peep in upon him, he is found by no means shy, though not a very pleasing acquaintance, and chiefly skilled in the use of the chop-sticks with which he eats his rice.

The Annamese, indeed, have the name of the ugliest, dirtiest, and in every way least admirable people of Indo-China, their peculiar feature being a projection of the great toe, which has prehensile power almost equal to that of the thumb. M. Monnier seems the only traveller who has a good word to say of them; he insists on their good-natured patience and politeness, but confesses it were well to be short-sighted in view of their betel-stained mouths. In the mountains behind, the Laos race show a more manly and enterprising character. Mixed with them are wilder communities, whose allegiance is so vague that in our generation an ambitious Frenchman won the consent of one tribe to set up as a king among them, "S. M. le roi des Sedangs", on the model of his countryman Aurelius-Antony I of Araucania, whose story may be told in our account of Chile; and for a time the former's claims passed without question.

The French, by "arrangement" with Siam, extended their claims of protection beyond the mountains up to the Mekong, which, with a neutral zone of 25 kilometres on its right bank, for a time made their border along Siam and the Shan states of Burma. Then in 1907 the south-eastern Siamese provinces of Battambong and Siam Reap were acquired by France, which now speaks of its sphere of influence as stretching vaguely over the basin of that river, as yet not fully explored.

TONGKING

This is the most populous part of Indo-China, the inhabitants, at the lowest estimate, numbering 10,000,000. The narrow coast-line here broadens out in the open delta of the Red River, with its affluent the Black River, behind whose rice-fields a more varied culture is invited by hills extending to the frontiers of Siam, Burma, and China. The capital, head-quarters of the French government in Indo-China, is Hanoi, with some 100,000 inhabitants, where a smart French city has been added to the crowded quaintness of the native town, whitewashed by the sanitary vigilance of its new masters. Picturesque features are its lakes, its great pagoda containing a colossal bronze statue of Buddha, and an enormous citadel built a century ago by French engineers, now reduced in size by their successors to fit the exigencies of modern warfare. The artisans of Hanoi have had a name for carving, inlaying of mother-of-pearl on ebony, lacquer, and other ornamental handicrafts, but their native taste seems to be corrupted by European models. About the time of the Heptarchy this was a seaport; it now stands 60 miles inland. Ships of some size can still ascend the channels of the encroaching delta; others stop at the port of Haiphong nearer the river-mouth, which does not as yet seem a very successful emporium, though, like Hanoi, it displays regular streets, shop-fronts, cafés, and electric light. That shrewd critic M.

Monnier notes how during the afternoon this town was hushed in a siesta, an indulgence unknown to the merchants of Hong Kong or Bombay.

The same authority—cited rather than English travellers, who might be suspected of detraction—gives the number of Frenchmen in the colony as about 2000, excluding soldiers. Most of these are officials and shopkeepers. The number of actual colonists at the time of his visit he puts at fifteen. Yet Tongking is, or was, the most popular in France of all those so-called colonies. For long it had a troubled history of inland fighting with outlaws, like the dacoits of Burma, and with the formidable "Black Flags" of China, whose raids and cruelties recall Red Indian wars in America. So long as such perils must be braved, the adventurous spirit of France was eager to seek them in this little-known country. But when it comes to settling down to steady industry, with fevers and insects as the worst enemies, *hommes de bonne volonté* do not so readily offer themselves.

A handful of enterprising Frenchmen, indeed, hampered as they are by meddling officialdom, have shown what may be done on a rich soil under a climate rather more tempered than in other parts of this hot peninsula. To the natural products have been added coffee, vanilla, and other plantations; grape vines being one experiment that, if successful, might go far to reconcile Frenchmen to exile here. A huge mission-station carries on the manufacture of reed mats. Yolks of eggs are exported for the use of French leather-dressers. Forges and saw-mills have been set up. The mineral wealth of the hills is hardly yet estimated; but marble quarries are worked, and two important collieries, employing thousands of men, at one of which the coal is extracted from the open hillside. These vast stores of coal were originally opened up by British enterprise, but the French have now recognized their value. The workings are near the coast, to the north of the delta, where the Bay of Along is renowned for thousands of rocky islands extending like submerged Alps for some hundred miles.[1] The collieries are joined to the coast by two short railway lines. Steamers ply up the Red River; and from Haiphong, through Hanoi, a railway touches the Chinese frontier at Lunchow, while a branch has been pushed on to enter China by Yunnan now that the government of that pig-headed and pig-tailed land gives up its old policy of keeping the borderland an inaccessible barrier. Thus France is first in the race to draw Chinese trade to the ports of this peninsula. On the coast the two powers are separated by a shallow river, over which French and Chinese soldiers hold watch upon each other

It should be added that late accounts of the colony are more favourable than M. Monnier's. The European population has markedly increased; and Mr. A. Little speaks of Hanoi as one of the handsomest and best-regulated cities in the East. The railways in progress on different parts of this coast before long will form a connected line from Hanoi to Saigon in Cochin China.

[1] "Before us", describes M. Monnier, "opens the most extraordinary landscape in the world: an amazing archipelago of stones rising from the sea, now grown pale-blue again; needles two or three hundred feet high, pierced and fluted like cathedral spires; towers, bastions, ruined colonnades worn by the combined action of sea and rain; cyclopean fronts tunnelled from side to side, where the weather has worn windows, hollowed out passages, sky-lights, porches opening upon nothing, caverns level with the water, into which the waves rush with a sound of bells. Some monoliths of strange shape have been dubbed by the sailors with nicknames, such as the Monk, the Mitre, the Arch of Triumph, the Candlestick. Some overhanging blocks seem to rest on nothing; others are balanced on a point, ready to come down, one fancies, at the first squall. Navigating this chaos for miles and miles, grazing vertical walls, doubling a stone's-throw off spur-like capes, without fear of running aground in a depth of thirty to forty yards, one ends by having a sensation of peculiar anxiety, a sort of hallucination; one comes to ask if this labyrinth have any outlet."

COCHIN CHINA

On the south the coast of Annam brings us to the eastern horn of the peninsula, taken up by the flat malarious delta of the Mekong, with its swamps, creeks, and canals, beyond which the mountain range emerges again in the Condor Archipelago. Here is the French colony of Cochin China, one of Napoleon III's acquisitions, which sensible Frenchmen are inclined to look on as a costly burden. The country is duly divided into provinces, each with its staff of administrators; but colonists are few among the population, chiefly Annamese, among and behind whom live some tribes so aboriginal as still to use poisoned arrows. Saigon, the capital, 50 miles or so up the turns of its navigable river, is a smart new town, regularly built, with a magnificent palace for the governor-general, who usually resides at Tongking, fine public buildings and gardens, a subsidized theatre, museum, barracks, post-office, all of the most admirable, and plenty of the cafés in which perspiring exiles may dream of Paris through a mist of absinthe. M. Monnier, who should not be too severe a critic, remarks on all this as "a fine scene upon a stage too large for the piece"; and other accounts of the actors suggest a certain famous company numbering "four-and-twenty men and five-and-thirty pipers". The European population of under 3000 is mostly made up of officials and their satellites. There is one merchant to twenty functionaries; and of the merchants a majority are not Frenchmen. A tramway leads to the larger town of Cholon, three or four miles off, where most of the business goes on in the hands of Chinese. The population of the two places together is put at over 100,000 by a loose estimate. With the Mekong, Saigon communicates by a channel, and also by a short railway to Mytho, a settlement so unfortunately situated that it has to be provided with good drinking-water daily by train. Its own port, though a good one, is busy only for two or three months in the year during the rice season. For the rest of the time business is stagnant, and the main interest of life seems to be quarrels, often resulting in duels between the exiles, who find so little else to do in an unhealthy and disagreeable climate. At the mouth of the Saigon river, Cape St. James is looked on as as a refreshing change from the heat of the city; but there too, the pale faces of the Eastern Telegraph Company's officials make no inviting welcome to Cochin China.

Photo. J. Thomson

Cochin Chinese Lady

The French colony occupies some 20,000 square miles, with about 2,000,000 people. Like Tongking, it has been ill-managed, over-regulated, and over-burdened. The plain truth is that only their jealousy of British colonial empire blinds Frenchmen to the fact of these settlements being neither a credit nor a profit to the mother-country. Little is done to elevate the natives, except by missionaries who showed the same zeal long before the conquest. Trade is choked by a protective system, that yet leaves the imports greatly overbalancing the exports. The whole concern benefits only a population of officials, whose chiefs seem apt to be at loggerheads with the generals of the army by which they are supported. France, in the long run, has to pay for this toy of colonial expansion, that might cost her dearly if her agents, as may any day happen, were to involve the national pride in a quarrel with some European power.

CAMBODIA AND THE MEKONG

Cochin China occupies the eastern coast of Cambodia, and the delta of its great river, now known as the Mekong, a vast volume of water that here pours into the sea by several mouths, one of them connected with the river on which Saigon stands. Above the delta it meets in four arms, each a mighty stream. The north-western of these branches, which might as well be called a back-water of muddy channels, for the current flows up or down according to the season, leads into the great Lake of Cambodia, some hundred miles long, more and less as it shrinks or flows with the rains, and once of greater dimensions.

Above the lake head, in territory now given up by Siam, is Siam Reap, and near it, hidden in a dense forest, are the ruins of Angkor, a city of which the natives declare that its walls took a day to go round, that its army counted 70,000 elephants and millions of foot-soldiers, that it was built by giants or genii. Making all allowance for exaggeration, the remains attest a state of grandeur vanished almost from memory—

> "Where a multitude of men breathed joy and woe, long ago:
> Love of glory pricked their hearts up, dread of shame struck them tame;
> And that glory and that shame alike the gold bought and sold".

Little more of the city stands than its vast walls and gates, within which the site has long been choked up by jungle with wild creatures for inhabitants. But not far off, still in fair preservation, a wonderful temple, or rather college of holy places, seems the finest monument of the past in this corner of the world, now given up to apes, snakes, and birds, and a few priests who welcome the rare pilgrim of faith or curiosity.[1] The buildings, according to some authorities, date from the tenth century; but the Buddhist faith that then flourished has here been grafted on to earlier conceptions of Hindoo mythology; and the fact of figures of

[1] Mr. F. Vincent (*Land of the White Elephant*) reckons that there are a hundred thousand separate figures—"warriors riding upon elephants and in chariots, foot-soldiers with shield and spear, boats, unshapely divinities, trees, monkeys, tigers, griffins, hippopotami, serpents, fishes, crocodiles, bullocks, tortoises", and so forth. Dr. A. Bastian points out that the unknown artist "has represented the different nationalities with all their distinctive characteristic features, from the flat-nosed savage in the tasselled garb of the Pnom, and the short haired Lao, to the straight-nosed Rajpoot, with sword and shield, and the bearded Moor, giving a catalogue of nationalities, like another column of Trajan, in the predominant physical conformation of each race. On the whole, there is such a prevalence of Hellenic cast in the features and profile, as well as in the elegant attitude of the horsemen, that one might suppose Xenocrates of old, after finishing his labours in Bombay, had made an excursion to the east."

Vishnu having been adapted as Buddha points to a beginning under the predominance of one faith and a completion under the other. Within a moat covered with the sacred lotus, and two exterior walls, the central mass rises upon an earthen platform, culminating in a square shrine of Buddha; and the most striking feature is a double colonnade that encloses this, its sides carved into a gallery,

Colonnade, Nakhon Wat (Angkor). (From a photograph by Mr. J. Thomson, F.R.G.S.[1])

half a mile long, of relief sculptures representing scenes and figures from the Sanscrit epic of the *Ramayana*.

Some of the pictures seem connected with the history of Ceylon. The wonderful temples of Java are also recalled. Indications of serpent worship do not fail to appear. Among the ruins of the city is a remarkable sandstone statue of a "Leper King", to whom is vaguely attributed the founding of the temple; and tradition makes him an Egyptian. M. Mouhot, who may be called the European discoverer of this deserted city, is inclined to identify it with the lost tribes of Israel, whose works and ways used so often to be traced all over the world, before

[1] Mr. Thomson was among the first to bring the Cambodian antiquities to European notice, and published detailed accounts of his explorations in his book *Straits Settlements, Indo-China, and China* (Sampson Low & Co.).

the days of comparative mythology. In his opinion the buildings date in part before the Christian era. Among the sculptures are inscriptions, which have been partly interpreted. Not the least puzzling question is how the vast masses of different stone employed were brought to this alluvial plain. One thing is certain, that Indo-China has for centuries known no race able to plan and execute such marvellous structures, not even the pupils of the French École Polytechnique, who here carry out so practical public works.

These remains, pronounced by M. Mouhot nobler than any left by Greece or Rome, and others mouldering in the forests, make monuments of an empire whose origin and grandeur are lost in mystery. Even within historical times Cambodia appears to have been the greatest power in the peninsula, but it has shrunk like its lake, giving up its inland domains to Siam, before the French seized the eastern coast. It now contains about 60,000 square miles with some million of inhabitants, forming a protectorate of France under a king who plays the sovereign upon French models. The capital is Pnom Penh or Panompin, at the junction of the Mekong with the outlet of the great lake. Here at least are the royal palace, full of incongruous gimcrackery; the gambling-houses, by which his Cambodian majesty draws an income from his subjects without open oppression; and the new buildings in which a French resident and other officials pull the strings of government as far as it suits them.

The *Kmer*, as the old inhabitants are called, show Caucasian origin in fine physical characteristics distinguishing them from the Annamese; but on the plains they too have fallen into an oriental lethargy that explains their decadence. These plains, flooded by the Mekong, are naturally rich in the productions of this region, notably in gamboge, the tree-gum that takes its name from Cambodia; but the Cambodians show little ability to make the best of their country, and its trade is chiefly in the hands of Chinamen and Malays. On the Gulf of Siam is the port of Kampot, fit only for junks and other coasting vessels, so that most of the commerce of Cambodia goes through Saigon. Iron is smelted by the hill tribes, among whom great mineral resources are reported to lie undeveloped. The special export appears to be dried fish and fish-oil, the Mekong and its tributaries being full of fish, often nine feet or so long, the catching and curing of which employ many large villages. When the great lake ebbs after its annual flood, it leaves, gasping on the mud, fish enough to make manure for the fields, this being, as the Pilgrim Fathers found, what their descendants call an excellent "fertilizer". Nets, hooks, spearing, all methods are used, and the Buddhism of Cambodia is not strict enough to keep the fishermen from knocking their victims on the head as fast as they are entangled by a net trawled over the shallows. The fishing season is that of low water; and during the rains, these frail villages, perched on stilts, are left to drown in the general deluge.

Above Pnom Penh the main arm of the river still inundates plains bearing rice, maize and cotton. Higher up it winds through hills sparsely peopled by the Laos tribes, where forests have overgrown more ruins of ancient cities and temples. The vast volume of its waters led the French to hope that they had here a water-way to China; but on exploration this course turns out to be singularly broken by islands and rapids through worn boulders, that at low water form cataracts, while the floods often turn the river into a labyrinth of rushing channels blocked up sometimes by islets of entangled timber. In one

reach it may be a league broad, then a few miles off it has narrowed to a gigantic torrent, as described by M. de Carné in his record of its exploration. "Reduced to a breadth of 60 mètres, it boils and bellows. It has hollowed in the rock a bed so deep that a hundred mètres of lead-line do not touch the bottom. Nothing can express the horror of this passage, where the yellowish waters writhe through a close defile, dashing themselves against the rocks with a frightful din and forming whirlpools which no boat can stem. Men have fled from the banks; great forest trees bend themselves from each side over the abyss, into which they are often dragged by their own weight; one sees neither village nor even isolated hut. Some daring fishermen have lodged themselves in the clefts of the rocks; at the beginning of the rains, these unfortunates have hardly time to fly, so great is the rapidity with which the river swells, its normal increase surpassing 15 mètres."

Riverside Dwelling on the Mekong

Photo. J. Thomson

Here and there the river and its tributaries flood over brackish swamps, drying into an efflorescence of salt that makes a more valuable harvest than the gold-dust scantily washed out of its sands. Now and then the forest and bamboo jungles give place to the rice-fields of a Laos village, while the more primitive tribes shyly keep themselves close in the leafy and hilly wildernesses, though, indeed, some of these so-called savages seem to be quite as presentable as those who have pushed them into the background. At one spot there are the extensive remains of a brick city which M. de Carné calls Vien-Chan, inferior, indeed, to the stone fragments of Angkor, but not three centuries ago this was so renowned as the Laos capital that the governor of the Dutch Indies sent to it an embassy; now it is hardly marked on maps, and its few inhabitants lodge in poor cabins under the ruins of gilded temples. Till lately all this country more or less loyally obeyed the

king of Siam, but it is now passing under the authority of France, whose first emissaries, to their great discontent, found themselves taken for Englishmen, hitherto respected even here as the type of *ferrangs*, though this name for foreigner had its origin from the French.

The great river, in its upward course, has two bold bends westward, bringing it more towards the centre of the peninsula, and above the sources of the Meinam, whose basin is cut off by the Mekong Valley from China. Near the northern bend is Luang-Prabang, the chief market of the Laos country, about which mountain masses rise to the height of 9000 feet, and volcanic energy, in the solfatara stage, is still at the work that has left its marks on other parts of this region. Beyond, through the country of the Shans, a people hardly to be distinguished from the Laos, the Mekong becomes a Chinese river.

SIAM

The centre of the peninsula is occupied by its only independent kingdom, whose continued independence and solidarity, however, seem to rest on shaky foundations. Siam has shrunk so much under French aggression, from boundaries always so vaguely defined by semi-dependent tributaries, that its area can hardly be stated with precision; this may be roughly put at 250,000 square miles, with a population of 6,000,000 or more, about a third of them Siamese, the rest a medley of neighbouring countrymen, with such a large proportion of Chinese that the Court of Peking, in its proud fits, had some reason to count Siam as a vassal to the Celestial Kingdom. The north part, extending to about the 20th degree, is mountainous; and mountain walls shut in the course of the Meinam river, whose alluvial plain and delta make the richest part of the kingdom. Rising in the Siamese highlands, it has for its main tributary the Meping, from the watershed of the Salwen; then lower down by two main branches it reaches the flat, malarious coast, fringed by palms and mangroves, where it goes on silting up the shallow sea. Far and wide this basin of the Siamese Nile, with its fields and forests, is flooded by the rains of the south-west monsoon. The north-east monsoon brings a dry and less enervating winter; and, on the whole, the climate seems fairly healthy, unless for the usual diseases of swampy and tropical regions.

The government was the usual oriental despotism; and for long Siam clung to the oriental policy of isolation. In 1855, however, a more enlightened king made a treaty of commerce with Britain, since which continuous efforts have been made to come into touch with western civilization. The late king, Chulalonkorn, educated by an English governess, and instructed by visits to our country, during a reign prolonged over the lifetime of a generation tried honestly to elevate his country upon English models; and, by sending the princes of his family to school in Europe, gave a guarantee that this policy will be continued. He died in 1910, succeeded by his eldest son, who had spent some years in England. When the French from the other side began to dictate to him, he is understood to have sought a British protectorate; but we declined such an offer as savouring too much of the native white elephant. So, while the trade and moral influences of the newly-organized kingdom are chiefly British, it finds itself helpless against French pretensions; and what allegiance it has to offer us seems not worth the risk of quarrelling with our near neighbour.

Unfortunately, Siamese civilization proves too much a veneer laid over the natural incapacity for self-government. The old system of a double monarchy has long been abolished, and King Chulalonkorn limited his own absolutism by ministers and councillors, who are mostly princes of his house—multiplied by the polygamy common among the upper classes—and form a family party of more or less efficient rulers. External signs of progress are much in evidence, at least in and about the capital. Siam belongs to the Postal Union, lays telegraph-lines between her chief towns, and has made a beginning of railways. The silver currency of *ticals*, once worth half a crown, now declined in value to about that of the rupee, is elegantly coined at Bangkok, and small copper money is imported from Birmingham; but it is significant that the only bank-notes used were till recently those of an English bank, the government not having ventured to put its own into circulation. It has now, however, established a standard currency; and its European advisers are at work upon other reforms. The late king introduced several orders of knighthood, besides the less glittering benefits of schools, hospitals, and printing-presses; but he was not so well able to educate a staff of patriotic and energetic administrators. He had an army trained by European officers, and a navy in which Danes took the leading part; but when put to the test this armament turned out ludicrously inefficient. In 1893 the Siamese had a fit of bellicose excitement, during which they thought to defy France after provoking her by shifty diplomacy; but in spite of the forts and sunken hulls with which they had barred the entrance to the river, and the costly guns they could not work, two small French gun-boats steamed up to Bangkok, throwing the whole city into a panic; then a blockade of the coast soon brought about humiliating submission to the demands of those better-equipped foreigners. Since then Britain and France have for the time come to an agreement as to their spheres of influence; but what with pressure from without, and corruption within, the state, once so promising, may before long go to pieces if it be not absorbed by one or other of the border powers who, like two tame elephants, are concerned to school this wild one in the ways of industry.

What Siam wants to make a civilized state is the raw material of manly citizenship. The people are too sluggish in mind and body, too much given up to general *dolce far niente*, their shiftless habits making them helpless unless as slaves to some tyrant or superstition. Good laws lie idle for lack of upright governors; even the slavery that has been nominally abolished cannot be rooted out. Well-meant machinery of progress fails to work here without the motive power of energetic life, or soon gets out of gear for want of being oiled by common sense and honesty. The Shans, Laos, and other hill people, who make a more hopeful element of the population, hold very lightly to Siamese suzerainty, and may be expected to drop off with the decay of the main stem. The Siamese proper much resemble the Burmese, differing from them in appearance by the men's habit of cutting the hair short into a brush instead of winding it up in a top-knot. Like the Burmese, they generally learn to read and write from their lazy swarm of monks; but they read nothing to rouse them out of their sleepy Buddhism. They delight in shows, for which frequent occasion is given by the ceremony of cutting a boy's hair, that answers to our confirmation, and more notably by the cremation of princes and great men, cremation here being generally practised, as exceptionally in Burma. The poor, indeed, may be

scurvily dealt with, their bodies laid out to be picked by vultures before a little fuel is spent on the bones; but the rich, perhaps after lying in state for months, are burned regardless of expense, with the accompaniment of feasting, almsgiving, music and dancing, as well as prayers. The body of a late crown-prince was thus finally disposed of in 1901, six years after his death; and King Chulalonkorn's own body was recently consumed upon a most sumptuous pyre of precious scented woods. Boat-racing, boxing, and stage plays are also popular

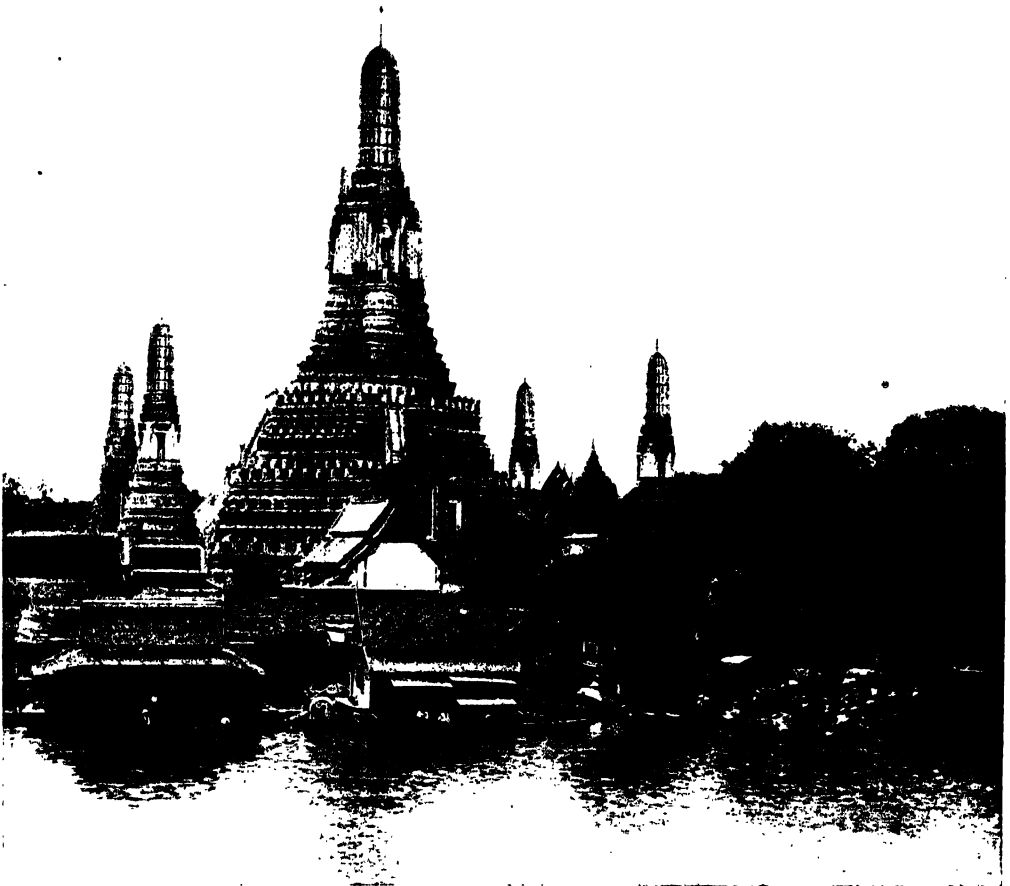



Photo. Lambert & Co

Wat Cheng, Bangkok (see page 35)

diversions, as in Burma; and gambling and lotteries here too may be called the curse of the country.

Most foreigners take a contemptuous view of the Siamese; but it is only right to remember how they have been ground down by oppressive governors, by slavery for debt which was the common condition, and by forced labour due to the state, the whole population, though their name means "free men", having been looked on as royal serfs. Under the better régime which their king has inaugurated, at least on paper, they should have a fairer chance of showing good qualities; such are vouched for by some who come to know them. For one, Mr. H. Warrington Smith, formerly director of mines in the royal service, gives them this testimonial in an account of a trying experience common with travellers

here. "The incessant thunder of the pitiless downpour on the leaves, mingling all night with the groans of the sick men, the uneasy dreams of ever-rising torrents and scantier rations, the feverish longing for the dawn, the dreary welcome streaks of day, the long chill hours splashing through the dripping mists, the breathless battling at the fords, and the necessity of appearing to enjoy it all, such are the main features of travelling in the rains. No one who has been privileged to go through it can forget the pluck and patience of the native character, or can come out of it without the loss of many prejudices and the acquirement of a new and ineradicable respect for the men who bore it with him."

The chief entrance of the Meinam is impeded by sand-banks, which the government leaves unremoved as a sort of natural defence, reinforced by the forts that in Siamese hands have proved so useless. Outside, sheltered by a mountainous island, which also makes a bathing-place, is a harbour for large vessels, that here can discharge their cargoes to be taken up the river by lighters. At the mouth is the port of Paknam, from which a railway or steam-tram runs to Bangkok, 16 miles up the river, a distance much increased by its tortuous bends. Till of late, when the German flag comes notably forward, by far the greater part of the shipping has been British; and the chief export is rice, as in Burma, teak counting next among other products of the peninsula.

Bangkok, the modern capital, is now a place of perhaps over 500,000 people, half of whom are said to be Chinese, and less than half Siamese natives. It straggles for a long way up the banks of the Meinam, most of the houses being built in the water, upon piles and rafts, with canals for side streets, and the tide as drainage, a situation that has earned for it the title "Venice of the East". This Venice's buildings, indeed, are mostly of a flimsy character; but it, too, has the river as its main thoroughfare, boats as its carriages, and steam-launches for omnibuses. Part of what may be called the suburban population make their home on boats of all sorts. The late king added some broad streets of brick houses, and a long new road on which electric trams run. A walled inner "city" on the right bank contains the government offices and the fine royal palace, in an interior sanctum of which the king lived secluded among his numerous family. The museum, with its natural history and ethnological collections, is a public institution one hardly expects to find so far east; there are also a good hotel and a club of the foreigners, who number some few hundreds in all. Everywhere appears a superficial imitation of Europe, from the architecture of the new palace to the uniform of the police, who seem dusky and dwarfish caricatures of a London "bobby"; then the busy mills and yards on the left bank suggest Rotterdam rather than Venice.

Bangkok has, of course, its proportion of semi-barbarous pagodas, one of which is celebrated as shrine of a jade statue called the Emerald Buddha. "It is", says Mr. Henry Norman, "in the *Wats*—the temples, or monasteries, as they should rather be called—that we discover the really finer parts of Bangkok. These buildings occupy the best sites, and afford the most beautiful views of the town. Built for the most part in the days when roads and carriages were unknown, they nestle among the trees upon the banks of the innumerable canals. Amidst shady cloisters, frescoed in brilliant colours with the fabled incidents of Brahmin polytheism, and glaring with the hell-pictures of later Buddhist mythology, stands the Temple itself, lofty, cool, and dim, with three-fold or fourfold roofs and soaring rafters and marble floors, where dreamy monks

recite in impressive sing-song the lengthy formulæ of their world-old faith, while placid Buddhas tower above them in endless calm, or stretch their length in huge figures of sixty or seventy feet of gilded brickwork, through the gloomy columns. Around and outside these more sacred precincts stand rows on rows of little dwellings for the priests, where day by day they practise their orisons, or instruct their pupils, or pursue their meditations. But it is on festival days, and on the weekly Sacred Day, the seventh and fifteenth of each moon, that these *Wats* become the scene of activity and resound with the sound of many voices." Another traveller, Mr. G. M. Reith, notes in a critical spirit that the Buddhas of Siam lack the moral dignity of those sculptured in old Java and Ceylon;

Photo. Lambert & Co

River Scene, Ayuthia

here hundreds of them in a row seem to wear on their faces a self-satisfied smirk, like so many gilded plaster casts of oriental Little Jack Horners. This author much admired the Wat Cheng, whose graceful lessening peak, sculptured to the top like a bride-cake, towers over the low buildings of Bangkok; but higher up the river he was rather startled to come upon a *Wat*, which, by way of being up to date, made an almost exact reproduction, fittings and all, of an English Gothic church.

The apparent progress comes mostly to an end with the outskirts of the capital, beyond which there are few roads but the channels of the delta and tracks through the forests. The Meinam's network of branches and canals, indeed, gives water-ways through a great part of the kingdom. Several railway-lines are in construction or in prospect. One has been made up the river to Ayuthia,

the ancient capital, now in ruins scattered over a maze of green islands, beyond which Mount Phrabat is a renowned goal of pilgrimage to a hollow in the rock here, believed to be the footprint of Buddha, not the only one left upon this devout region. The line goes on to Korat, on a tributary of the Mekong, chief market-place of a plateau towards the French sphere of influence; and a branch is in progress northwards towards Chieng-Mai or Zimme, the trading centre of the Shan States, which is said to have 50,000 inhabitants. Another place that should be noted is Pechaburi, the Brighton and the Windsor of Siam, to which in hot weather one gladly escapes from the stifling air and cholera-poisoned water of the capital. Here the king has a palace, as also on the island of Khosi-chang, outside the Meinam mouth, not to the satisfaction of his orthodox subjects, who recall a prophecy that the country will come to ruin when its kings live on the sea. Pechaburi is on the western side of the gulf, near the head of that long promontory, for half-way down which several tributary Malay states form a sort of tail to the else compact kingdom. The chief place of this appendix is the island of Salang, or Junk Ceylon, which is described by an expert as a "gigantic tin-mine"; and this humble metal proves a more valuable asset than the gold, the rubies, and sapphires here and there found in the interior.

Gems appear to be most plentiful in a mountainous region behind the eastern side of the gulf, where the port of Chantabun, prospering through this industry, promoted by British capital, was in 1893 occupied by the French. The eastern provinces of Battambong and Siam Reap have also been taken under their authority, while everywhere their consuls are zealous to prepare cause of dispute by registering as French subjects, Annamese, Chinese, and other inhabitants of Siam, who care to claim this escape from their native allegiance. Uneasy indeed must lie the head that wears the crown of Siam; but it is hoped the present will prove as earnest as the late king for his people's improvement.

THE MALAY PROMONTORY

A dubious question, such as has already arisen in the case of Burma, and must often arise in the arrangement of a work like this, is in what section to place the long, narrow, southward promontory that has been called a handle to Indo-China? Physically it is connected with the main peninsula, though if the narrow Isthmus of Kra, already jagged by a broad estuary, were cut through by the canal which is in view, the much more peninsular promontory would become isolated; while, on the other hand, the gradual filling up of the shallow Gulf of Siam may end in rewelding this almost detached portion to the mainland, with which, as well as its adjacent islands, it was once incorporated. Ethnologically it belongs to the northern group of these islands. In scenery and productions it partakes of the character of both regions. On the whole it seems best to include it with the larger part of the peninsula, over which its own name is often incorrectly spread.

This boldly-shaped projection, which might roughly be compared to a bottle, at its neck only 30 or 40 miles broad, measures hence to the extreme point some 600 miles, and over 200 more if we take in the appendix of Burma and Siam north of the isthmus. It has a backbone of granite and sandstone mountains

rising behind alluvial plains, where often amphibious fens and lagoons are shut in by low sand-banks and reefs, or the shore is fenced by malarious mangrove swamps on a waste of slime. Sometimes the mountains send out spurs to the coast in the shape of rocky islands and of bold groups, as in the "Three Hundred" peaks that are seen afar over the Gulf of Siam, and in isolated tops like Mount Ophir (about 4000 feet) behind Malacca, taking its name from the early navigators' idea that this was Solomon's gold-mine. The whole region has an old fame for gold, which has given it its poetic name, "The Golden Chersonese". Gold certainly is found in the streams; but the main mineral wealth of this country now proves to be its tin, abundant on the surface, as the Cornish miners got it two thousand years ago, who must dig ever deeper for their gain, at the disadvantage of competing with naked labour in a land where livelihood is cheap and wages are paid in depreciated silver.

The population is a very varied one. In the northern half the characteristics of Burma and Siam are shot together with those of Malaya, as colours on some of the native silk fabrics, Buddhist pagodas gradually giving place to Moslem mosques. In the jungles of the interior still lurk tribes, or rather bands, of the stunted Negrito aborigines, using poisoned arrows and blow-pipes, sometimes living on trees, and looked on by their Malay conquerors as little more human than monkeys. The mass of the country-folk are Malays; but wherever steady industry is called for, it is more often taken up by Chinese settlers, who form the larger part of the inhabitants in some of the towns, where they have their separate quarter, are openly organized under their "captains", and have given great trouble to our magistrates by their secret societies, banded together to commit crimes with impunity. The seaports are largely invaded by natives of India, notably the "Klings" of Madras, known from their white turbans, while the Bengalees affect red ones. Malabar men, Arabs, Armenians, and other strangers, with Eurasians of different shades, and a sprinkling of Europeans, enter into the composition of this motley gathering.

Politically, the peninsula now shows less confusion. The northern provinces paid tribute to Siam, which here has lately transferred to Britain the states of Kelantan, Kedah, and Trengganu, stretching across the promontory, to balance concessions to France. Other states in the centre are by way of being independent; under Malay chiefs, who do not always welcome European visitors, having taken from their southern neighbours the warning that an inch of foreign observation is like to end in an ell of superintendence. In the south several native states, indeed, have more readily submitted to British "protection", exercised through residents bringing to bear upon their sultans a greater or less degree of wholesome pressure, with marked benefit to the prosperity of their subjects. Among them lie patches of territory coloured red in the map of good government, which form our Straits Settlements. Our protected vassals are Johore, opposite Singapore, and Pahang on the east coast, which latter, with Negri Sembilan, Selangor, and Perak on the west, make up the group known as the Federated Malay States, more directly under British control, while the Sultan of Johore keeps an independence, limited as to his foreign relations, and justified by his zeal for progressive measures carried out with the advice of European officials over a state a little larger than Wales with a population not much above Cardiff's. The population of the Federated Malay States, by the last census, was growing on to 700,000. Lumpor, in Selangor, seems the largest town (45,000).

Penang, or Prince of Wales Island, is the oldest of the settlements, having been in British hands for more than a century. Pulo-Penang it is on maps, the prefix meaning "island" in these seas, while the name comes from the penang or areca palm, so frequent in its girdle of rich foliage, from which rises a peak nearly 3000 feet. At the foot lies the capital, christened Georgetown, but it too is commonly spoken of as Penang by the traders who seek its harbour. The whole island makes about 100 square miles, and has some 100,000 inhabitants, a motley mixture of races, with Chinese and Klings predominant. Coffee, pepper, sugar, nutmegs, and many kinds of fruit flourish here in a warm climate, tempered by sea-breezes, while the forest-mantled Peak is renowned in those enervating regions as a beautiful and bracing sanatorium. Among its rich vegetation Lady Brassey noted the extraordinary abundance of the sensitive-plant, growing like a weed in grass and hedgerows, with creeping, prickling stems and "little fluffy mauve balls of flowers" that shrink up out of sight at an approaching footstep, and leave a faint gray trail where this has passed.

Opposite Penang, on the mainland, lies the British province Wellesley, a strip of fertile land about 35 miles long, specially rich in sugar-cane, which could be cultivated more widely if it were less unremunerative in the present state of the market. To the south of this comes another bit of British territory, known as the Dindings, from a group of islands on the coast, the largest of them extolled by Mrs. Bishop as "unspeakably lovely, . . . forest-covered to its deep summit, its rocky promontories running out into calm, deep, green water, and forming almost land-locked bays, margined by shores of white coral sand, backed by dense groves of coco-palms". This scene, once a haunt of pirates, is now peaceful enough, and has turtles' eggs for one of its products. It was sliced off from the territory of the Sultan of Perak, who has welcomed British protection for his whole state, transformed by the help of British officers who have their head-quarters at Thaiping, a town a little way inland, connected with its port by a short railway. As an example of the conditions under which civilization was introduced here, Mr. A. G. Rathbone (*Camping and Tramping in Malaya*), who had much to do with road-making in these native states, mentions that when a hospital was first opened at Thaiping it had one evening an unexpected visitor in the shape of a rhinoceros, "which, entering at one end, walked calmly through one of the wards, passing between the beds of the astonished patients, and departed through the opposite doorway without harming anyone or doing any damage"—probably itself too much astonished to heed anything but the best way of escape from such an unfamiliar scene.

Farther down the coast comes the larger territory of Malacca, about a city that is the oldest of all European settlements here, three centuries ago the chief port of those Eastern seas, as, long before, it was the capital of a great Malay dominion. But under the Portuguese it fell into decay, typified by their ruined cathedral, that once rang with the appeals of St. Francis Xavier, and now serves as a beacon for ships. Passing into the hands of the Dutch, Malacca flourished no better with Rip Van Winkles for masters; and now that its roomy Government House makes offices for British rule, the city still seems a Sleepy Hollow behind its island-studded harbour, where mosquitoes do most to keep its half-breed sons awake, and the largest and busiest part of the population, as elsewhere hereabouts, are Chinese, for their part much given to the lethargy of opium smoking, that feeds a profitable government monopoly. The houses of these

strangers contrast with the pile-built huts of the native Malays; these latter to be looked for chiefly in the background of rich jungles of canes and creepers, behind which rises Mount Ophir. The leading produce now seems to be tapioca rather than gold; but it is not the fault of the land that its lazy dwellers turn it to no more profit.

The leading part that once belonged to Malacca is now taken by Singapore, founded 1819, upon the site of an ancient capital, by Sir Stamford Raffles, whose statue so worthily adorns it. Standing on an island at the extremity of the Malay Peninsula, the "Lion City", though less than a century old, has become

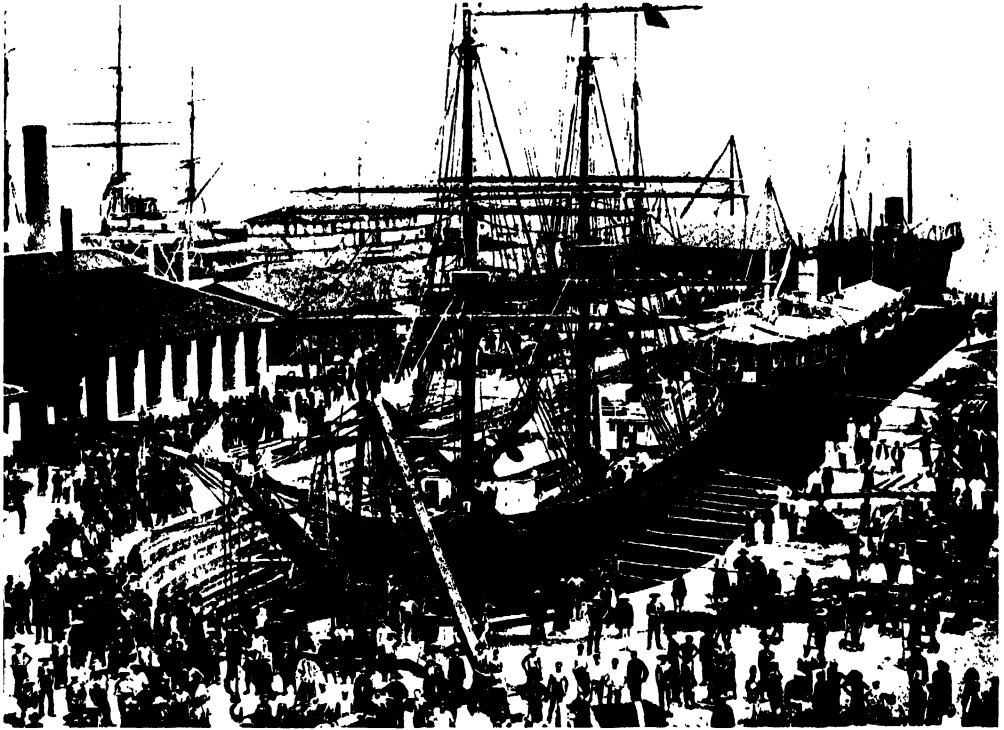



Photo. Lambert & Co

Tanjong Pagar Dock, Singapore

far the most important place in this region, not only as the capital of our Straits Settlements, and a British naval station, but as a free port that attracts traders from all the eastern seas, where rival emporiums are so often barred by fiscal restrictions strangling the commerce they have been designed to nurse. Here only spirits and opium are taxed. This international market has a population of over 225,000, Chinamen predominating, with Mexican dollars for their chief currency of exchange, or a new British dollar nominally worth 3*s.* In some parts of the interior, by the way, as in Abyssinia, the natives will trust no coins but the Austrian Maria Theresa dollars, which are struck by our Government for their use. The English, few in number, are masters here, where even a European servant or a private soldier expects a native punkah-puller or other attendant. The climate, equably warm, is enervating but not specially unhealthy, tempered by sea-breezes and frequent showers that make it tolerable to white men little more than a degree from the equator. The saying is that it rains at Singapore every day; and so it does for parts of each day more often than not. There is no

distinct rainy season hereabouts; but the three months of our spring and the last three of the year are wetter than others.

The gardened bungalows of merchants and officials cover the slopes of wooded hillocks behind the city, whose various inhabitants have their separate quarters, and its suburbs straggle for miles into the luxuriant forests that cover the island. The European quarter seems the most dull and sleepy; the others are depicted by Mrs. Bishop as "ablaze with colour and motley with costume", among a jumble of architecture, where Moslem mosques, Hindoo and Buddhist temples, and Chinese joss-houses are gathered about the spire of an English cathedral. Singapore, indeed, is an *omnium gatherum*, not only of Malaya, but of the whole East.[1]

The author of that famous cruise of the *Sunbeam* dwells on the radiant glow of colour that strikes every stranger, where our rare hothouse blooms run wild, all the brighter for the "dim green twilight" of the forests that form a background. The roads are shaded by flowering trees, such as the *acacia flamboyante*, "flame of the forest", with its clusters of scarlet plumes round a golden heart. Other trees have white waxy blossoms, streaked with crimson or yellow. There are clumps of red, purple, and copper-coloured oleanders twenty and thirty feet high. The foliage is often almost hid by flaunting parasites—long tassels of orchids and strangling arms of "parrot-blossomed" creepers. They swarm with brightly-coloured birds, insects like fluttering flowers, and brown and gold lizards. In the Botanical Gardens, where this kaleidoscope of Nature is most richly shown, Lady Brassey noted "pigeons more like parrots than doves in the gorgeous metallic lustre of their plumage"; and she found the very poultry-market alive with brilliant birds, such as the scarlet lories "like a flame of fire", tiny parrots not bigger than bullfinches, pheasants, jungle-cocks, and other lordly birds, helping to make up a lively and noisy scene in a climate that makes it necessary to bring poultry alive to market. To the harbour, among steamers flying every flag of the world and brown-sailed Chinese junks, come island boats, the sides of which "cannot be seen for the multitudes of cockatoos, parrots, parrakeets, and birds of all sorts fastened on little perches. . . . The decks are covered with sandalwood. The holds are full of spice, shells, feathers, and South Sea pearl shells." Mrs. Bishop, also, has to tell of the "fairy freights" of trading boats, loaded with submarine treasures—"coral white as snow, or red, pink, violet, in massive branches or fern-like sprays, fresh from their homes beneath the clear warm waves, where fish as bright-tinted as themselves flash through them like 'living light'. There were displays of wonderful shells, too, of pale rose-pink, and others with rainbow tints which, like rainbows, came and went: nothing scanty, feeble, or pale"—except the faces of Englishwomen exiled in this tropical paradise!

The fruit-market makes another spectacle, supplied as it is with all the varieties "whose generous juices are drawn from the moist and heated earth, and

[1] "Each race has its own quarter—there is 'Kampong Malacca', 'Kampong Kling', 'Kampong Siam', 'Kampong China'. In one spot you are dazzled with the silks of India; in another the *sarongs* of Java are spread out like a kaleidoscope; in another you are suffocated with an indescribable mixture of Eastern scents; in another an appalling stench meets you, strange rainbow-like birds utter raucous cries, and the long, thin, hairy arm of a gorilla is stretched out between bamboo bars in deceptive friendliness; in another there is such a packed mass of boats that you hardly know when your foot has left dry land. And all this mixed humanity exists in order and security and sanitation, living and thriving and trading, simply because of the presence of English law and under the protection of the British flag. Remove that piece of bunting from Government House, and all that it signifies, and the whole community would go to pieces like a child's sand-castle when the tide rises. Its three supports are free trade, fair taxation, and even-handed justice among white, black, brown, and yellow, and these exist in the Far East under the British flag alone."—Mr. Henry Norman's *Far East*.

RATTAN-CUTTING, SINGAPORE

Rattans are the stems of slender, graceful-leaved palms of the genus *Calamus*, which are indigenous in the Malay peninsula and archipelago, but the name is also applied to totally dif ferent palms found in China and elsewhere. The true rattan palms are nearly all climbing plants, and are sometimes as much as four and five hundred feet long. Rattans are put to many uses in their native countries, being even used in making temporary bridges, and they are now an important commodity of trade. In Europe and America they are extensively used in the manufacture of chairs, baskets, walking-sticks, umbrellas, and numerous other articles.

Lambert, Singapore

RATTAN CUTTING: AN IMPORTANT INDUSTRY IN THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS

whose flavours are the imprisoned rays of the fierce sun of the tropics. Such cart-loads and piles of bananas and pine-apples, such heaps of custard-apples and 'bullocks' hearts', such a wealth of gold and green giving off fragrance!" Here the traveller may first try whether he loves or detests the durian, which can be found at Rangoon or Bangkok, but is more characteristic of the Malay regions. This famous fruit is a melon as big as a large pine-apple, thickly set with spikes, which cause serious hurt to any head that may be in the way when it comes bowling down from the high tree on which it grows. Another striking peculiarity, when its hedgehog armour comes to be opened, is a smell like putrid fish or rotten eggs, but the cream-coloured pulp about its egg-like seeds leaves a flavour which some think most exquisite, while others never get over the first suggestion of onions gone bad, and some persons cannot bear even to be in the room with a durian, so much esteemed by others as the king of fruits. More generally popular is the mangosteen, a kind of purple orange about the size of a golf-ball, whose bitter rind contains sections of white pulp, having an agreeable subacidulous flavour, much appreciated in the Far East; but this fruit is so delicate that it has not been found possible to bring it to Europe.

The soil, where cleared, is a good deal taken up by pepper and gambir plantations; but the wealth of Singapore comes chiefly from its position as a distributing centre for the many productions of this region. The island is separated from the mainland by a winding strait which looks rather like a lake or river, so narrow that at one time it is said tigers used to swim across it, taking toll from our subjects at the rate almost of a man a day. On the other side is the native state of Johore, which, under a ruler who has welcomed British advice, is making notable advance in order and prosperity; though as yet, in an area of 9000 square miles, its population is hardly greater than that of Singapore, as the whole inhabitants of this peninsula, longer as it is than England, would not fill a quarter of London.

The interior is little known, and awaits opening up by the railways which come to amaze the inhabitants of Malayan forests. Already considerable stretches of rail have been or are being laid. A line runs across the island of Singapore to the strait opposite the town of Johore, whence it has been continued up the main promontory, linking together isolated bits of rail in the federated states, and going on to Prai, opposite the island of Penang, with which, as at the Johore ferry, there is steamboat connection. We have also made some good roads; else, the main highways are the streams which wind through these dank forests. Here we can have no better guide than Mrs. Bishop, whose "Golden Chersonese" makes an album full of richly-coloured pictures from these solitudes.[1]

[1] One striking chapter describes a boat journey by night, where the windings and rushings of the river through lofty jungle trees were lit up by "the pale greenish undulating light of fireflies, and the broad, red, waving glare of torches flashing fitfully", then here and there by the faint glow of a luminous fungus lurking in the shadows. The night was still, but broken from time to time by the long shrill cry of night birds, by a hooting as of a steam-whistle in the distance, said to be the voice of a large monkey, by huge plunges and splashings of invisible alligators or elephants disturbed in drinking, by cries as of fierce gambols, or of hunter and prey. "There were hundreds of mysterious and unfamiliar sounds great and small, significant of the unknown beasts, reptile and insect world, which the jungle hides and then silences. Sheet-lightning, very blue, revealed at intervals the strong stream swirling past under a canopy of trees fallen and erect, with straight stems one hundred and fifty feet high probably, surmounted by crowns of drooping branches; palms with their graceful plumage; lianas hanging, looping, twisting—their orange fruitage hanging over our heads; great black snags; the lithe, airy forms of our boatmen always straining to their utmost. . . .

"Day broke in a heavy mist, which disappeared magically at sunrise. As the great sun wheeled rapidly above the horizon and blazed upon us with merciless fierceness, all at once the jungle became vociferous. Loudly clattered the

From the Malay people a name has been taken not only by this peninsula but by the archipelago to which it makes a stepping-stone; so some account of them will form at once an appropriate conclusion to the present section and an introduction to the next. The Malays are a race who themselves claim for their cradle the mountains of Sumatra, and have spread all over the south-eastern seas of Asia, where their soft, easy language, "the Italian of the East", makes the commonest medium of communication; the "Low Malay" that is, for it also takes a more elaborate form that has been christened the "High Malay". They appear to have been originally a branch of the great Mongol family, which they "favour" in their low stature, light-brown skin, straight black hair, and scanty beard. The Malay branch has been shaped by the Mohammedan faith, which, long in reaching this corner of the world—since Moslem missionaries were not so active by sea as by land—became firmly ingrafted here, to bear fruit of a partial civilization among the people exposed to its influence. In the interior of the islands, indeed, this influence may be hardly felt; and everywhere the Malay's religion is apt to be an amalgam of various elements; but though seldom fanatical, he shows his loyalty to Islam by the respect in which are held the Arabs here and there settled beside him, whom he recognizes as his masters in making the best of both worlds; while a pilgrimage to Mecca gives him social standing and whitewash for a bad character as well as spiritual assurance.

Women are not so jealously secluded as in some parts of the Mohammedan world. Polygamy is a Malay institution, here as elsewhere kept in check by considerations of economy. In some parts, indeed, restriction seems to be put on marriage by the high price demanded for a wife, and the young man without means can often win a bride only by an irregular union, legitimatized by serving in her father's house, as Jacob served for Leah and Rachel. An insolvent debtor, also, becomes a slave to his creditor, so that sometimes a large part of the population has passed into a state of what may be called domestic servitude rather than slavery. A bitterer captivity was brought about by the piratical kidnapping common among the Malays, which in most parts has now been suppressed. To the chiefs of their communities they are submissively obedient, still more to the force of public opinion, the Malay being, as a rule, a most sluggish Conservative, unless when driven into revolt by fits of the revengeful passion that makes part of his character. In general he is proud, lazy, taciturn, temperate in diet, courteous but undemonstrative in manner, quick to take offence, and readily roused from his common mood of apathy to spasmodic daring; but among more blunt-mannered nations he passes for being treacherous and cruel rather than bold. His favourite weapon is the *kris*, a short, crooked snake-like blade, on the tempering and ornamentation of which he is a connoisseur; the broad straight cutlass called the parang is a more everyday instrument; and he carries a spear when he cannot use firearms. The indispensable garment at home is the *sarong*, a long, loose skirt, which, worn rather differently, serves for both sexes, who are often not easily distinguished unless by a handkerchief or scarf knotted about the man's head. The sarong, as well as the jacket worn above it in fuller costume, may be richly embroidered; and costly and showy orna-

busy cicada, its simultaneous din, like a concentration of all the noise of all the looms in the world, suddenly breaking off into a simultaneous silence; the noisy insect world chirped, cheeped, buzzed, whistled; birds hallooed, hooted, whooped, screeched; apes in a loud and not inharmonious chorus greeted the sun; and monkeys chattered, yelled, hooted, quarrelled, and spluttered. The noise was tremendous. But the forest was absolutely still except when some heavy fruit, overripe, fell into the river with a splash."

ments go to make up their holiday apparel. Their native ugliness they enhance by the chewing of betel, which distends the lips, and by a repulsive practice of filing the teeth. The Malay's house, of slight materials, he has often cause to build high above the swampy soil infested by plagues of animal life, where it may be seen standing up on stilts like a railway signal-box, with a ladder for stairs, the open space below serving as stable, pig-stye, fowl-yard, and muck-heap. His agriculture, in such a climate, does not cost him much trouble. Some of the more enterprising Malays take as kindly to trading and seafaring

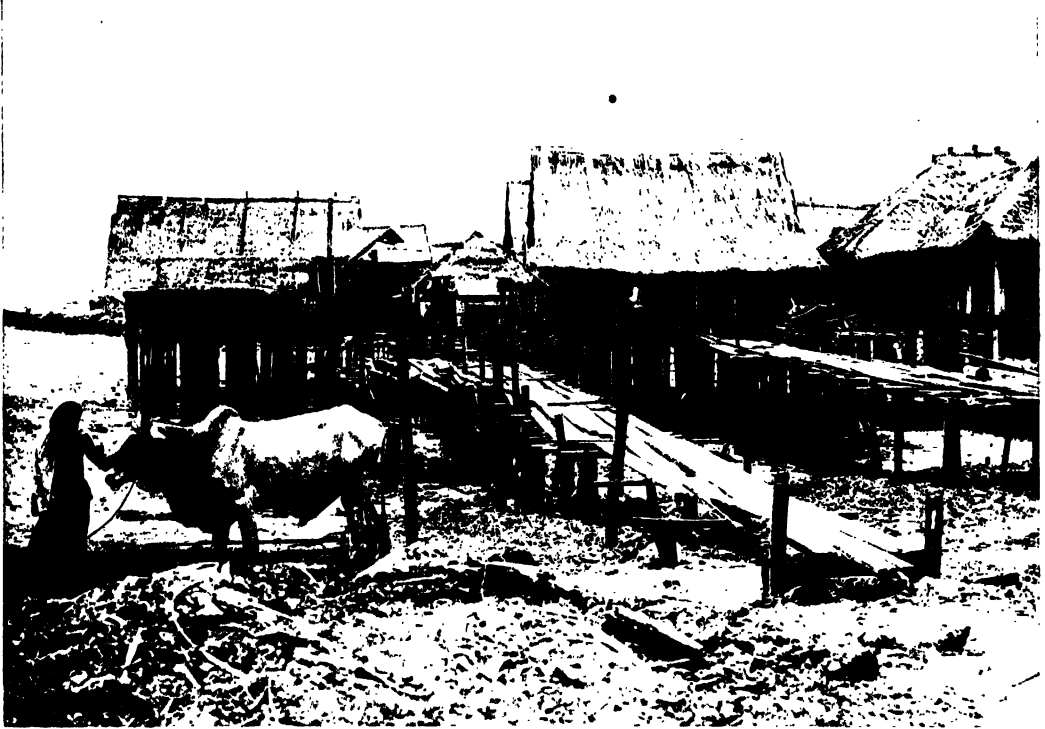



Photo. Lambert & Co.

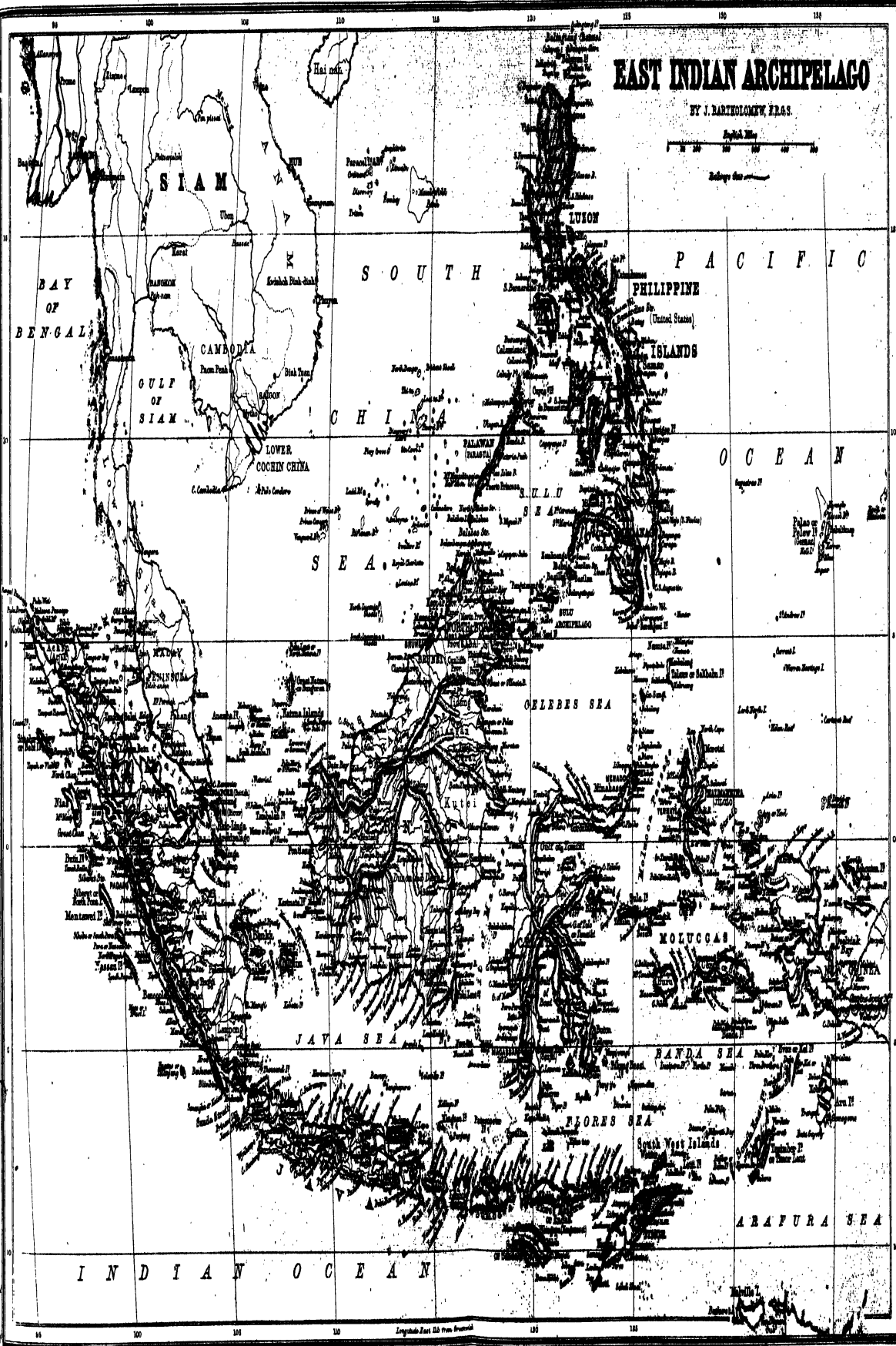
Malay Village

as others to piracy; and emigrants of the race are now found as far off as our Cape Colony, but the mass seem content with a not-too-active life ensured them by the bounty of tropical nature.

A feature in Malay life that has most struck Europeans is the peculiarity of running a-mok, or "amuck" as the word has passed into our language. Brooding over wrong or insult, this restrained, sullen nature seems liable to generate strange fits of nervous excitement which find their line of least resistance in an outburst of homicidal mania. The Malay thus possessed runs on like a mad dog, blindly hacking and stabbing at everyone he meets, till he falls exhausted by the vehemence of his passion, or is struck down by overwhelming force when the neighbours have rallied from the panic that sent them flying out of his path. The police of Batavia are equipped with forked instruments by which an a-mok-runner can be pinned to a wall and secured; else he is like to be shot or struck down on his werewolf career, perhaps after having fatally injured two or three dozen innocent persons. Another strange mental

disease, to which Malay women are more subject, is *lata*, an hysterical affection in which the patient is moved to imitate everything said or done before her, screaming out incessantly the name of the object that has disturbed her senses. Thus Dr. H. O. Forbes relates how, when he took a bite out of a banana, a servant so afflicted at once did the same by a piece of soap she was carrying; and again, coming on a lizard, this woman fell on all-fours to imitate the creature's motions, crawling after it through mud and mire. Another woman, startled by a snake, could not restrain herself from vibrating her finger before the reptile in imitation of its tongue, till she irritated it into striking her with fatal result.

Gambling is also a vent for the Malay's latent excitement. At this he will often lose all his belongings, even play away the liberty of himself and his family. His favourite sport is cock-fighting, the villages being kept noisy by the crowing of the cocks, which to each home are such proudly-treasured pets as the British miner's bull-pup or the pig that pays the Irish cotter's rent. "Almost every day", says Mr. Wallace, "there was a cock-fight in the street. The spectators make a ring, and after the long steel spurs are tied on, and the poor animals are set down to gash and kill each other, the excitement is immense. Those who have made bets scream and yell and jump frantically if they think they are going to win or lose, but in a very few minutes it is all over; there is an hurrah for the winners, the owners seize their cocks, the winning bird is caressed and admired, the loser is generally dead or very badly wounded, and his master may often be seen plucking out his feathers as he walks away, preparing him for the cooking-pot while the poor bird is still alive." Lizards, cockroaches, and other creatures are sometimes trained, it appears, to make the same cruel sport for men. It should be said, on the other hand, that the Malay youth show a love for manlier games, among which their skill in a form of football has excited the admiration of English travellers.

Gambling and cock-fighting prove inveterate passions of the Malay, who else, in manners and habits, allows himself to be modified by the European masters under whom it may be his lot to live. Running a-mok is now not common in the protected British states, where slavery has been abolished, and where the carrying of arms has quickly fallen into disuse, a significant token of the new order under which a man no longer needs the once ever-ready kris at his side. Even the chewing of betel here seems to be going out of fashion among the rising generation, as the native-made sarongs are replaced by Manchester goods, and the whistle of the railway-engine begins to scare elephants and tigers from the dank Malayan jungles.

THE EASTERN ARCHIPELAGO

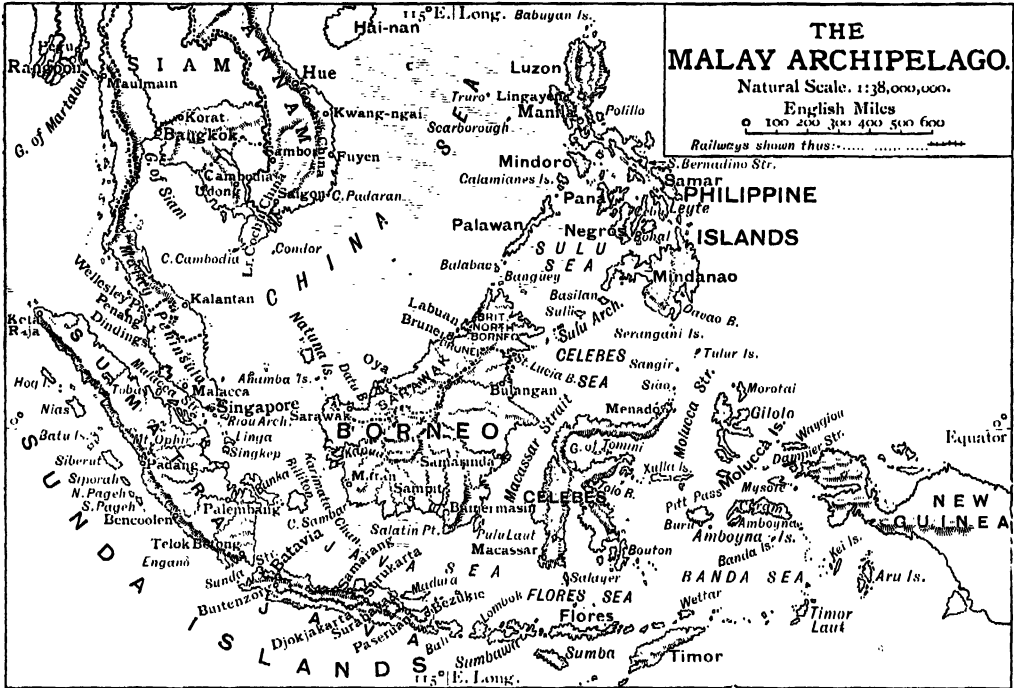
GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

We now enter upon a region which in all recorded time has been insulated from the rest of the world, and owes little of its fame to the storied past. No great religion, no world-famed dynasty, has arisen among the ten thousand islands of the Eastern or Malay Archipelago. In Java and elsewhere, indeed, there is abundant evidence of a former elaborate and powerful civilization, but its annals have perished, and its remains are ascribed by the natives of the present day to the handiwork of gods or demons. Such authentic history as the Malaysian island-groups possess is mainly that of the contests which have been waged in their waters by European nations amongst themselves, and even these have for the most part but a local and limited interest. The conflicts of the Spanish Main, the successive invasions and conquests of India, have permanently modified the development of civilization. It can hardly be said that the struggles for the treasures of the Spice Islands have written themselves very deeply on the general progress of the human race. To this statement an important exception may have to be made in the near future. The United States have somewhat doubtfully undertaken new responsibilities which seem likely to drag them into the work of colonization. The transference of the Philippine Islands from the hands of an indolent and decaying power to those of the most pushing and progressive nation upon earth can hardly fail to be fraught with large issues both for the natives of those islands and for the American people.

But if the interest of historical association be wanting to this Malay Archipelago, on no part of the earth's surface have the charms of Nature been more lavishly poured out, and there are few regions which furnish a fuller field of interest to the naturalist, the seismologist, the student of ethnology, or the seeker after scenes of unsurpassed wonder and beauty. Travellers and poets have exhausted the resources of language in attempting to picture the splendour of those tropical seas and lotus-eating shores that fascinate imaginative spirits, fretted by commonplace formality, till, like Tennyson's hero, they long to wander—

> "On from island unto island, at the gateways of the day.
>
> "Larger constellations burning, mellow moons and happy skies,
> Breadths of tropic shade and palms in cluster, knots of Paradise.
>
> "Never comes the trader, never floats an European flag,
> Glides the bird o'er lustrous woodland, swings the trailer from the crag;
>
> "Droops the heavy-blossomed bower, hangs the heavy-fruited tree—
> Summer isles of Eden lying in dark-purple spheres of sea."

The Eastern or Malay Archipelago are names given to that long spread of islands which lies between Asia and Australia, and extends for over 4000 miles from east to west, its extreme northern and southern limits being about 1300 miles apart. The Malay Peninsula, already dealt with, though actually forming part of the mainland of Asia, belongs in climate, in natural productions, and indeed in all its main features, to this region. Two of the islands, New Guinea and Borneo, are the largest in the world, excluding Australia and Greenland. Several others compare in size with the British Isles. There are nearly a score, on an average, almost as large as Yorkshire, and over a hundred that would make smaller English counties. The lesser isles and islets are innu-

merable, many being mere specks and dots of land sown here and there amidst the spaces of the sea. In the intermediate channels often run strong and shifting currents, adding to the perils of an intricate navigation. Lying mainly along the line of the Equator, and washed by an ever-tepid ocean, the Archipelago possesses a climate at once hotter and moister than any other region of equal extent, and to this source of fertility must be added (as regards a large number of the islands) the stimulation of volcanic energy,—a combination of causes fostering animal and vegetable life on a scale of exuberance hardly equalled unless in the tropical forests of South America.

Two chief centres of volcanic action on the globe lie opposite each other, one being in the north-west corner of South America, the other covering a considerable part of this archipelago,—

> "A land of old up-heaven from the abyss
> By fire to sink into the abyss again".

Java, the Garden of the East and the richest of all tropical islands, owes its

very existence to the same forces by which it is still occasionally devastated. It contains probably a larger number of volcanoes, active and extinct, than any other district of equal extent. The belt of present volcanic activity may be roughly indicated as passing through Sumatra, Java, Sumbawa, Flores, and Timor, then trending northwards to the Moluccas and the Philippines. All along this line, and for a considerable distance on each side of it, earthquakes are of frequent occurrence, most of them, indeed, comparatively slight, but shocks destroying whole villages happen in some part of this region almost every year. The volcanic eruptions are sometimes on a scale of appalling magnitude. In Java, in 1772, a whole mountain was blown up, and a large lake left in its place, forty villages being swept away. In Sumbawa, the great eruption of 1815 cost the lives of myriads by fire and famine following a cloud of ashes that darkened the air to fall thickly upon earth and sea for 300 miles around. The island of Makian, one of the Moluccas, like many others here, consists practically of a great volcanic crater. This had slumbered peacefully for 215 years, and was believed to be extinct. It was clothed throughout with vegetation, and twelve populous villages had been built upon its slopes. In 1862 it burst forth with renewed fury, and most of the inhabitants perished. The crops of Ternate, 40 or 50 miles away, and those of many of the other islands, were almost completely destroyed by the vast volume of ashes which the neighbour volcano cast forth.

These are only a few examples of such volcanic disturbances as have left frequent traces of devastation long forgotten. In our own time came what seems the most disastrous and far-reaching catastrophe of the kind on record, when the mountain island of Krakatau, between Sumatra and Java, after two centuries of quiescence, was half-blown away by a series of eruptions said to have been felt in some form or other all over the globe. For more than three months in the summer of 1883 its explosions went on, culminating at the end of August in three days of subterranean bombardment, during which hell seemed literally to break loose on the earth. In the first weeks the Dutch of Batavia had made steamboat excursions to witness the phenomena; but they might well be willing to keep at a distance, when the climax of uproar was heard at Buitenzorg, 100 miles off, like the continual firing of cannon close at hand, so violent as to break windows here. "Compass-needles spun around and around, barometers rose and fell, clouds of sulphurous vapours half-strangled the people in the gloom of that awful Sabbath night, and no one slept with this dread cannonading and the end of the world seemingly close at hand." The whole night of the 26th August having thus been made terrible, the next day was turned into night by a column of smoke and ashes that is calculated to have risen to a height of 17 miles or more. About 4 cubic miles of the island being blown into the air, the sea is believed to have poured into its burning side so as to cause the final explosion. It was then that a huge seismic wave arose, sweeping the shores of the strait and overwhelming towns and fields in an instant. Ships making their way through the sulphurous cloud and hail of red-hot stones were suddenly flung on their beam-ends or pitched up in a manner that may have saved them from sinking, since thus came to be thrown off the mass of ashes by which their decks were overwhelmed and their rigging set on fire; others were scorched into helpless wreck by the floating conflagration. A man-of-war was carried nearly 2 miles inland and left 30 feet above the level of the sea. One officer gives us a

lively account of that night of thundering blackness pierced by red lightnings, and how next morning he caught sight of a town, its pier crowded with people, then in a moment town and people had been overwhelmed. "Reefs rose clear from out the deep sea-bottom where formerly the waters had been unfathomed, while islands disappeared, dragged down into the bowels of the ocean." Not till the 28th did the infernal tumult die out, and a sickly twilight showed the ruin it had worked.

Photo. Lambert & Co., Singapore

Cutting a Road through the Jungle

The loss of life will never be exactly known, but it is supposed not to have been less than 40,000. In the harbour of Batavia pumice lay so thick that men could put down planks and walk upon the sea. The din made itself heard in India and Australia, even farther. Ashes of the eruption fell in the island of Timor, 1200 miles away. Over a year later they came drifting on the shores of South-east Africa, where the wash of the great tidal wave had been clearly felt, as at Cape Horn, and, it is said, as far as the English Channel. The disturbance of the air, reverberating round the world, was marked at all meteorological stations. And as one of the far-spread effects of this eruption, the fine dust hanging in the upper atmosphere is understood to have coloured those brilliant sunsets so remarkable in England during the autumn of 1883.

If words fail to paint the awful grandeurs of an eruption, it is almost as impossible to bring before the eye the glories of tropical vegetation, where leagues of country are covered by gigantic trunks as by grass, huge mountains are wrapped in evergreen verdure, their barren cliffs half-hidden by a net-work of creepers, rivers are almost choked by masses of aquatic plants and arched in by gloomy vaults of foliage; and often those vast forests remain unexplored, because a way

has almost to be dug out of their tangled thickets by painful labour for every yard of progress. Yet imagination may exaggerate the beauty of such scenes, where density and hugeness of form make the striking features rather than loveliness or brilliancy of colour. Mr. Wallace points out that the gorgeous shows of tropical flowers, gathered as into a bouquet in our hothouses, are not found together in their native wilds, and will seldom be seen in such masses as to impress the eye. Sometimes brightly-coloured flowers are lost in the endless monotony of shade. He himself has wandered for days in the forest without coming upon any flower so fine as a hawthorn or a honeysuckle; and he has never seen in the tropics "such brilliant masses of colour as even England can show in her furze-clad commons, her heathery mountain-sides, her glades of wild hyacinth, her fields of poppies, her meadows of buttercups and orchises". The prevailing hue of tropical plants is "sombre green". The observer, indeed, seldom gains a favourable position for beholding the richest blooms, that climb far above his head, turning their faces towards the sunlight glowing above the roof of foliage. The best display of colour will be from some point overlooking the blossomed tree-tops, or in some opening of shade that lights up the crowd of creeping flowers. And the gigantic flowers of this region often want sweetness and delicacy of colour. The Rafflesia, perhaps the largest known, runs almost entirely to a fleshy cup a yard or more broad, weighing from 12 to 15 pounds, which after a few days begins to putrefy and becomes foully infested by insects.[1]

The huge trees of the tropics are often valuable not only for their timber, but for the gums they exude to be turned to such good account in the arts of more civilized lands, while their bark, lesser stems, and leaves are of many uses in the housing and clothing of the people. The region abounds also in fruits, sometimes peculiar to it, sometimes introduced, as in the case of the pine-apple. It is to be said in general that the richest fruits do not grow to perfection wild, but are more or less indebted to cultivation. Even the cocoa-nut, stretching its branches to the sea, that so easily bears its kernel from strand to strand to thrive naturally on almost all the islands, is also planted and tended, for if not kept

[1] Mr. Wallace has every right to be listened to on tropical aspects; but some travellers appear to have been more lucky in their observations. Mrs. Bishop has a keen eye for colour, and she thus presents the wonders of a forest in the Malay Peninsula:—"The great bamboo towers up along the river-sides, in its feathery grace, and behind it the much-prized Malacca cane, the rattan, creeping along the ground or climbing trees and knotting them together, with its tough strands, from a hundred to twelve hundred feet in length, matted and matting together; while ferns, selaginellas, and lycopodiums struggle for space in which to show their fragile beauty, along with hardier foliaceous plants, brown and crimson, green and crimson, and crimson flecked with gold; and the great and lesser trees alike are loaded with trailers, ferns, and orchids, among which huge masses of the elk-horn fern and the shining five-foot fronds of the *Asplenium Nidus* are everywhere conspicuous. Not only do orchids crowd the branches, and the *hoya carnosa*, the yam, the blue-blossomed Thunbergia, the vanilla (?), and other beautiful creepers conceal the stems, while nearly every parasitic growth carries another parasite, but one sees here a filament carelessly dangling from a branch sustaining some bright-hued epiphyte of quaint mocking form; then a branch as thick as a clipper's mainmast reaches across the river, supporting a festooned trailer, from whose stalks hang, almost invisibly suspended, oval fruits almost vermilion-coloured; then again the beautiful vanilla and the *hoya carnosa* vie with each other in wreathing the same tree; or an audacious liana, with great clusters of orange or scarlet blossoms, takes possession of several trees at once, lighting up the dark greenery with its flaming splotches; or an aspiring trailer, dexterously linking its feebleness to the strength of other plants, leaps across the river from tree to tree at a height of 100 feet, and, as though in mockery, sends down a profusion of crimson festoons far out of reach. But it is as useless to attempt to catalogue as to describe. To realize an equatorial jungle one must see it in all its wonderment of activity and stillness—the heated, steamy stillness through which one fancies that no breeze ever whispers, with its colossal flowering trees, its green twilight, its inextricable involvement, its butterflies and moths, its brilliant but harsh-voiced birds, its lizards and flying foxes, its infinite variety of monkeys—sitting, hanging by hands or tails, leaping, grimacing, jabbering, pelting each other with fruits; and its loathsome saurians, lying in wait on slimy banks under the mangroves." *The Golden Chersonese*

clear of overhanging neighbours it will not bear its full burden of hardy fruit; and here and there, in what seems wild wood, a fetish doll may be found attached to the trunk, as a sign that the produce is claimed by some owner, who turns it to so many purposes. The young nut supplies both food and drink; the sap ferments into wine; the husky fibre makes cordage; the scrapings of the shells are burned for pigment; and the pulp, when uneatable according to Malay taste —the only state in which we know it—is boiled for the oil that, as well as entering into their food, forms the common illuminant of native homes, their simple lamps being perhaps a glass tumbler, with a piece of pith floating in it for a wick. Mr. Wallace mentions one ingenious use for the shell, formed by sailors into a water-clock: in a bucket of water floats half of a scraped shell, with a small hole bored in the bottom through which a fine thread of water squirts up, till at the end of an hour, so exactly is the filling of the shell calculated, it sinks in the bucket. Travellers have often noted a less striking proof of Malay ingenuity in the way monkeys are trained to climb the trees and bring down the nuts for their master. The banana is another common fruit, growing in as many varieties as apples, and easily cultivated in proportion to the food it supplies. Other characteristic ones, the durian and the mangosteen, have been already pointed out in the market of Singapore; and others will best be mentioned in connection with the islands where they chiefly thrive.

The wonders of animal life are not less profuse than those of the vegetable world. Beasts of prey and troops of monkeys are found close upon the habitations of men. Brilliantly-plumaged birds flit like living flames through the twilight of the forests, that harbour winged and stinging pests, from venomous and monstrous snakes to greedy leeches which leap from the trees on to men's bodies, and the tormenting mosquito that takes its small toll of blood. There are gorgeous insects, such as that butterfly, seven inches across its velvety black and fiery orange wings, which, Mr. Wallace confesses, excited him almost to fainting when he first captured a specimen. In some of the islands, beetles, grubs, dragon-flies, and so forth are so large and numerous as to make part of the people's food. The pellucid waters swarm with myriads of strangely-shaped and rainbow-hued creatures. But of the fauna we cannot here speak in general, so varied are the species on different islands.

This consideration brings us to a discovery of modern times, which has made a great change in our view of the archipelago that on the map looks so homogeneous. Its eastern and its western portions appear to have been at some more or less remote epoch connected respectively with the mainland of Asia and with Australia. The long labours that gained A. R. Wallace his fame as a naturalist have gone so far to establish this division, that "Wallace's Line" is a familiar expression for an invisible boundary which passes between the small islands of Bali and Lombok, northwards between Borneo and Celebes, then to the eastward of the Philippine group. This boundary is formed by a depth of sea, elsewhere so comparatively shallow that in many parts a slight upheaval would again unite the islands to the continents from which they have been separated. The native traditions vaguely represent some of the islands as having been once joined on to their neighbours; but it is the distribution upon them of plants, and still more of animals, that best shows their original connection. The seeds of plants may be wafted far by the wind, or carried in the droppings of birds. Birds themselves have greater power of locomotion, and some quadrupeds

might contrive to find their way across a narrow space of sea, as tigers are said to have swum the strait separating Singapore from the mainland. But when we find tigers extant in Sumatra, and none of the species in New Guinea, we may conclude, from a concurrence of such instances, that these islands have been peopled from different continents. Minor differences between the fauna of related islands can sometimes be explained by the date, more or less remote, of the separation, while sometimes they are perplexing enough to make a *crux* in the theory, not yet satisfactorily explained away. Sometimes there appears a mingling of the characteristic forms of either region. Let us take a striking instance of zoological contrast. The two largest islands of the Archipelago, Borneo and New Guinea, are both very similar in their climate, vegetation, and general features, as in the absence of volcanic force. We should expect their fauna to be, if not identical, at least closely allied. On the contrary, they are, with few exceptions, different from each other, but similar to the animals in the one case of Southern Asia, in the other of Australia.

Ethnology has the same story to tell in substance, though here the dividing-line is somewhat less precisely indicated. Even uncivilized man has the power of transporting himself over narrow channels; and the Malays, as a more advanced race, have encroached somewhat on the old bounds of their eastern neighbours. The *praus*, in which they are fairly skilful navigators, have carried them far on errands both of commerce and of piracy. In islands about the dividing-line, mixed marriages, and irregular unions between native women and foreign traders, have produced a hybrid race to complicate the question of origin. Another perplexing element is a substratum of prehistoric aborigines, perhaps overlaid by Malay invasion. But as we draw towards Australia we find the islands undoubtedly peopled to a large extent by woolly-haired Papuans, akin to the inhabitants of Melanesia.

This distinction, now clearly recognized, suggests how the name Malay Islands, still sometimes given to this archipelago, is an unsuitable one, unless in so far as the Malays supply its prevalent stock. These islands, however, are so connected in popular ideas, and have such a real entanglement of relations, that it seems best to treat them together, though through them runs the division between two continents. Politically, also, their state is a little involved. But the dominant power here is that of Holland, to which most of the principal islands in whole or in part have long been really or nominally subject. Originally, as in the case of our Indian empire, these distant possessions were acquired by a Company, then they passed into the hands of the state, and are now ruled by a machinery of Dutch Residents, Assistant-residents, and Post-holders overlooking native sultans, rajahs, regents, and other officials, all under a Governor-General with viceregal authority. The seat of his power is Java, where are found five-sixths of the 60,000 Dutchmen scattered through the islands.

British interests are represented by traders and officials in Borneo; and far to the south-west of the archipelago is the remote group of the Cocos or Keeling Islands, taken possession of three-quarters of a century ago by a Scotsman named Ross, known as "King of the Cocos Islands", whose family still exercises a beneficial despotism here, combining a mission of civilization with a trade in cocoa-nuts and oil. These islets, a ring of some score of coral reefs, inhabited by a few hundred imported Malays, became known through Darwin's stay at them in 1836; and more recent visitors speak highly of the welfare and good

management of the little community, whose outlying ocean-girt home has been taken under the wing of our Straits Settlements, along with the nearer Christmas Island (200 miles s.w. of Java), valuable for its phosphate beds.

JAVA

Java, "a belt of emeralds strung along the Equator", is the richest of these tropical islands, and far the most valuable of the Dutch possessions. Ploughed up by the volcanic peaks that run through it, many of them still in activity, and watered by countless streams, it has a luxuriantly fertile soil, while lofty mountain altitudes modify its equatorial climate, so that 8000 feet above the sea appear familiar European plants, such as violets and buttercups. The highest point, near the eastern end, is over 12,000 feet. In the valleys and on the plains grow rice, coffee, sugar-cane, indigo, tobacco, tea, and the spices characteristic of this region. The necessaries of life are so abundant that, though a great part of the country is still covered by forests, a population believed to be twenty-nine millions occupies an area of about 50,000 square miles, without the help of the manufactures that make Belgium not quite so thickly populated in proportion to its size. The length of the island is about 600 miles, its breadth in the centre being 60 miles.

The main stock of population is Malay, which in the mountainous western end, under the name of Sundanese, has remained purer from admixture; and the Madurese at the east end show a certain sturdier fibre of character. The central mass have been tamed and civilized by a Hindoo conquest of old date, whose monuments are the wonderful ruined temples so thick on some parts of the island, testifying to a state of society at least as enlightened as that which raised the Pyramids of Egypt. In the fifteenth century came an Arab invasion, which has coloured the national character and religion, though the Mohammedanism of Java, as in other parts of the Archipelago, often seems little more than a veneer of orthodox practices over the natural superstitions, especially cherished among certain communities that seem to represent an aboriginal element. The people on the whole are remarkably intelligent. Their language, with its dialects and its double form for ceremonial and familiar use, shows traces of Hindoo influence; and there is a sacred script, like Sanscrit, which preserves some legendary literature. The beauty of Javanese writing is noticeable, as is the national taste in colour and decoration. The works of a native painter, Raden Saleh, are not unknown in Europe, where indeed he was educated. The people are apt in the arts of boat-building, pottery, tanning, weaving, embroidering and dyeing and painting cloth, and the making of elaborately-ornamented weapons. They are also industrious agriculturists, well practised in irrigation. As to character, they have impressed travellers more favourably than most other Asiatics; under the present conditions of peace and security, at all events, they prove temperate, orderly, and perhaps too submissive subjects to their Dutch masters. About the towns especially, their own blood is much alloyed by a half-caste infusion, as by the immigration of Chinese, Arabs, Hindoos, and other strangers, with whom the natives intermarry freely to make a fairly happy family. The Chinese settlers at present number over a quarter of a million, who,

bringing wives from their own country, go on growing more numerous than welcome.

Early in the history of European colonization Java was visited by Portuguese adventurers; but they do not seem to have suspected the wealth of this island. About the end of the sixteenth century it began to be nibbled at by the Dutch, the English also making a settlement here, which was withdrawn a century later, after the Dutch had fairly established themselves and went on acquiring territory by successive wars. When Holland passed under the dominion of Napoleon, this conquest was far from complete; and such as it was fell easily into the hands of the power that ruled the waves while the French remained masters of Europe. From 1811 to 1816 Java was a British colony, administered by Sir Stamford Raffles, whose wise policy in that short time did more to settle and develop the island than the Dutch had done in a century. This active-minded Englishman, founder of the Zoological Gardens of London, made himself so beloved by the natives, that long after his death they looked for him to come as a deliverer, like King Arthur or the Emperor Barbarossa; but he had vainly represented to the home-government the value of such a possession. After the general peace we gave back Java to Holland, which now governs it by a double machinery of European officials "advising" the native princes, "Regents" as they are termed, and headmen chosen by the communities. On the whole the people seem well broken in to this subjection; their highest ambition is that of holding posts under the Dutch government; and what disaffection still smoulders here is cherished by the fanaticism of Moslem priests. The Dutch are cold, to say the least of it, about the spread of Christianity among the natives, judging their own religion good enough for them, with the special merit of keeping its faithful votaries sober.

Photo. Moses & Co., Singapore.

Javanese Dancers

So far the management of Holland's colonies is not unlike ours in India; but there appears more than one important difference. The Dutch oftener fix themselves for life in a land whose climate allows them to rear their families; and here are found Europeans who have belonged to the country for generations, as is now the case in our Australian colonies. While the white-skinned aris-

tocracy exact from the natives a crouching respect that amazes even our haughty Anglo-Indians, these masterful Christians have not altogether escaped the effects of exile in a relaxing climate among a too-much-governed people, so that there seems some danger of their losing the qualities of a ruling race. Englishmen, who in the East make a religion of clean shirts and of sports as of church-going, find fault with the Dutch sahibs for a slovenliness, a physical laziness, and a tolerance of half-caste degeneration, that may foreshadow their falling towards the native level, as the Portuguese colonists have done. Other observers maintain the moral tone to be not lower than in an English colony, and judge more leniently the love of ease that makes Dutch ladies loll about all day in semi-native *déshabillé*; but it seems agreed that Batavian society wants refinement and elevating influences.

The prosperity of the colony was long delayed by a policy of monopoly and forced labour, which oppressed the people without much enriching the government. During our short ownership Sir Stamford Raffles reformed this system by the bestowal of commercial freedom and peasant proprietorship, again withdrawn by the Dutch. Afterwards they introduced the much-debated "culture system", by which the cultivators were forced to work in partnership with the state. This, hotly denounced on the one hand as slavery without the name, and on the other upheld as the best way to get work out of a sluggish people, for a time seemed a profitable source of revenue, which, however, is being abandoned for direct taxes in lieu of personal service. Opium and salt are still government monopolies; but the growth of coffee, once the most lucrative monopoly, is now allowed to be carried on by private planters, a privilege of less importance since outside competition has lowered the value of this crop as that of sugar. Tea and cinchona, and the culture of the cochineal insect, have been introduced, with other experiments, the value of which will be better estimated now that enterprise is given free play to develop the extraordinary natural resources of the country. In return for its somewhat too paternal restrictions the colonial government has spent liberally on roads, railways, and other public works, by which most parts of the island are now opened up to travel. Thus it begins to come within the scope of English tourists of the less adventurous kind, who will find here all reasonable furtherance on condition of taking out the permits required by the authorities. The currency is Dutch gulden, worth two francs, divided into cents.

The most populous commercial town in Java, and its best port, is Surabaya, near the east end, opposite the large dependent island of Madura, which shelters this harbour. Hence a railway runs to the inland Solo or Surakarta, the native capital, that has a population about as large as Surabaya's (130,000), but is of importance only as seat of a puppet emperor, who lives in idle state, with a Dutch resident to pull his strings. In the same part of the island, Jokjokarta is the seat of another native prince enjoying the title of sultan. At Solo, railway lines fork to Samarang, a port on the north, and Chilatjap, another on the south coast. Then from the latter the line goes on to Batavia, the capital, situated towards the north-west end, only two days by steamer from Singapore.

These lines keep as much as possible on the plains, where passengers get an idea of the extraordinary richness and populousness of the country, "a combination of the loveliest portion of England and of the Tyrol", opened up by well-made roads, fenced and shaded, provided with post-stables at frequent

intervals, and with bridges or raft-ferries over the streams. The roads often appear thronged with people in clean and gaily-coloured clothes: men leading pack-ponies of the pretty little "sandal-wood" breed so common here, women carrying loads on their heads, naked boys astride or stretched out asleep on the backs of buffaloes, or paddling in rich brown mud a match to the colour of their skins. A striking feature of costume is the enormous plaited and lacquered hats, that serve both for parasol and umbrella. Groves of bananas and bamboo shelter old villages, dotted upon a chequer-board of green and golden fields, where sowing goes on side by side with reaping at all seasons. Every foot of ground

Native Market, Java. (From a photograph)

seems to be turned to account. The hills present a peculiar feature of Javanese agriculture in the way they are covered with terraced rice-fields, through which rills of water are distributed, so that a whole mountain-side appears as if "etched with myriad fine green lines of verdure, wrinkled around and around with the curving parapets and tiny terraces that retain the flooded hanging gardens". Not the least beauty of this country is the way in which all shades of green are mingled by the gifts of an almost perpetual summer. From March to October, indeed, dry blasts from the Australian deserts bring to the eastern end a partial withering, soon overflowed again with fresh verdure, though sometimes a disastrous drought will be prolonged in exceptional years. At the opening of the wetter season the moonsoon may behave boisterously to make up for lost time; but most of the rain comes down in regular afternoon showers, as if from a well-managed watering-can. The Batavia district at the western end is kept watered almost all the year through.

Batavia, the capital of the Dutch East Indies (population over 100,000), is

now nearly three centuries old, but the city has shifted its position inland from its original unhealthy site, while, as the shore-line kept advancing so as to ruin the old harbour, a new one has been made some miles away, communicating with the town by rail, and by a river, which the Dutch have duly tamed to look like one of their own canals. Three chief quarters are distinguished—the old close-built business streets; the Chinese town in the centre, where the people are most thickly massed; and the more roomy suburb of Weltevreden, in which the Dutch officials and merchants have their homes, all fringed off by the bamboo huts of the Sundanese natives of this end of the island. Mr. Basil Worsfold, in his *Visit to Java*, thus gives us a general impression:—

"The pavements are of red brick, and the roads covered with a reddish dust; indeed, the prevailing tone of the whole place is a warm red-brown, varied by salmon-pink and green masonry, and generously interspersed with bright yellow, deep crimson, and olive-green foliage, though not unfrequently a spreading waringin-tree or a group of feathery palms overtops the general mass. Additional colour is given by the natives, who are clothed in light cottons and silken stuffs of delicate tones and graceful shapes, carried with an easy carelessness and unfailing novelty of combination. Sometimes they are gathered into dark-brown masses round the base of some one of the many bridges which span the river or canals, prepared for the luxury of the tropics—an afternoon bathe.

"All three quarters are possessed of a separate beauty. The elaborately-carved pediments and ponderous doors, the heavy balconies and eaves of the houses, give an old-world quaintness to the first, which is enhanced by the crowd of many-shaped and variously-coloured boats that line the quays that front the offices on either side of the great river. Nothing could be more delightful than the setting of the red-tiled roofs, with their dragon-decorated ridges and parapets, on the wooden trellis fronts and canvas blinds of the Chinese houses. Weltevreden, too, is not without attractions. The broad porticoes of dazzling white, with their Ionic columns and marble floors, are often set in a fair surrounding of green trees. The compounds and gardens are always verdant, and sometimes radiant with bright-leaved shrubs and flowers. Especially the broad green-covered squares and the wide roads arched with noble trees speak of coolness and repose in a hot and weary land."

The same traveller tells us that the Stadthaus, or town-hall, is just such an edifice as may be seen in any town of Holland. Other notable buildings are the Dutch church, the clubs, and the museum containing a very full ethnological collection from the whole archipelago. Weltevreden has two parks, or what in India would be called *maidans*; and one of them, the *Waterloo-plein*, recalls the short-lived modern union of the Netherlands by a column crowned with the Belgian lion, in honour of what a grandiloquent Latin inscription describes as the great Belgian victory of Waterloo. The larger park, shaded by fine avenues and surrounded by public buildings, is the *Konings-plein*, on which English residents play cricket, tennis, and now even golf, setting an example to the lazier Dutch, who will not take the trouble to dress themselves for company till the cool of evening, having snoozed away the hot afternoon after the mid-day meal called "rice-table", the Javanese tiffin, at which rice makes the basis for a mess from some dozen or more dishes.

Private houses are almost all of one story, with large airy rooms and shady verandahs. Here, as in India, carriages are a point of respectability; and the

lordly race goes attended by obsequious menials, who, as all over Eastern colonies, answer to the English word "boy". The costume of Batavian footmen may excite a smile, such fine liveries do they display above bare legs, with a needless European hat perched on the top of the narrow native turban. Some of the finest equipages and the best-furnished houses belong to Chinamen, who form a considerable though separate element of Batavian life, since, by patient industry and unscrupulous cunning, they have the art of growing quietly rich at the expense of the simple natives. Beginning as a porter or an apprentice to some fellow-celestial, this pushing stranger saves enough to set up as a pedlar,

Street Scene, Batavia, Java. (From a photograph)

soon rises to a shop of his own; then his ambition is to get hold of one of the monopolies, such as pawnbroking, farmed out by the government, in which he prospers too well for the good of the whole community; but his hardness as a creditor is not so harmful as the way in which he infects the people with his national vice of opium-smoking. These insinuating money-makers have been called the Jews of the far East, but they are also useful artisans; and the trade of usury here seems rather to be in the hands of Arabs, who show great keenness in fleecing their less orthodox co-religionists.

A railway carries one up in an hour or two to the refreshing climate of Buitenzorg (the Dutch equivalent for *Sans Souci*), which, though not a thousand feet above the sea, is Java's Simla, the usual residence of the governor-general. The main lion of Buitenzorg is its botanical garden, perhaps the finest in the world. Here the Dutch turn for gardening has full play, the glories of tropical vegetation being brought as it were to a focus among those of other continents, for which *cool*-houses supply such shelter as hothouses are in northern countries.

Through the centre of the garden, 90 acres in extent, runs a magnificent avenue of arched foliage a hundred feet above the ground, each tree wreathed with a different creeper. A point of special interest to Englishmen is a monument to the wife of Sir Stamford Raffles, recording our short ownership of the island. Among the Javanese flora is the *Rafflesia*, named after Sir Stamford, that boasts to be the largest flower in the world;[1] the huge pitcher-plants, so common in this region, are found holding a gallon or two of water in their graceful cups; while a low palm, springing from the ground like a gigantic primrose, has, Mr. Worsfold was told by the curator, "the largest fruit and the largest leaves of any known tree, the former being two, and the latter ten feet in diameter". In the adjacent horticultural garden are raised plants for practical purposes, which the government now distributes gratuitously to encourage the enterprise it long stifled by its monopolizing policy. On a mountain some thousands of feet higher up, plants familiar in Europe are experimentally cultivated as exotics, making a pigmy show among the exuberant vegetation of the tropics; but other introductions, such as the grand South American water-lily, christened *Victoria Regia*, appear quite at home in this congenial climate.

The scenery around Buitenzorg is very grand, the most renowned view being that upon Salak, a bold forest-clad peak standing up 7000 feet almost clear from its base, and often seen marvellously coloured by the atmospheric effects of a sky that seldom lets this greenery go a day without watering.[2] More imposing, if less charming, are the features of the volcanic scenery that forms the skeleton of Java's verdure. There are over forty volcanoes stretched along the island, some score of them still more or less active; and travellers often come in view of those truncated cones, blackened by lava seams, buttressed by ribs of rock, here brown and naked, there skinned over with the richest green, rising from plains of black, barren sand to the canopy of cloud that overhangs their crumbling craters. Sulphur-beds, patches of smouldering solfatara, hot springs, jets of gas, vents of subterranean vapour, are common; and among other volcanic phenomena, it appears, should be reckoned the supposed deadly power of that Upas-tree, which for a century furnished a telling trope to the poets and orators of Europe. It was believed to kill man, mouse, or bird that came near its poisonous exhalations, but this is now understood to be a myth, not to say a fiction. There is, indeed, a tree whose leaves and bark possess a strongly irritant property that seems to have been thus magnified; and the gases exuding from the volcanic soil on which it often stands may well have such an effect as is familiar in the case of the *Grotto del Cane* near Naples, where, on the approach of a stranger, prudent dogs used to take to flight for fear of being pressed into service of the experiment made on their vile carcasses.

[1] Mr. Carl Bock mentions a still larger flower found by him in Sumatra.

[2] "It was raining in Buitenzorg, but there was a clear patch in the sky on the western horizon, and when the setting sun looked through this peep-hole for a parting look at the scene before retiring for the night, a flood of amber light poured over the landscape. Gunong Salak lost its green hue, and blazed like an enormous nugget of burnished gold. The billowy carpet of green foliage that stretches from the spectator's feet to the base of the mountain also lost its green, and, wet with rain, it sparkled with a myriad stars of golden light. The more distant parts of the scene seemed draped with a fine golden gauze, while three invisible mountain peaks in the west, intercepting the sun's rays, threw three long wedges of blue-gray shadow across the sky. I had scarcely time to notice the gorgeous effects of the amber light, when Nature proceeded to turn on the other colours of her lime-light apparatus. The golden amber changed rapidly to a delicate rose-pink, which was quickly followed by a rich orange, and that again by a deep crimson, each successive change developing the points of the landscape in a truly marvellous manner; and finally the crimson deepened into black, and the scene disappeared with it, leaving the spectators listening to the patter of the rain on roof and trees, and to the common reflection that if we had seen those brilliant colours on canvas, we should have pronounced them unnatural and impossible."—Rev. G. M. Reith, *A Padre in Partibus*.

The chief productions of the island have been already indicated. It is a garden of the richest tropical vegetation, wild and cultivated. Here grow in perfection the durian and the mangosteen, king and queen of Malayan fruits. The rambutan is another favourite fruit, a bristly strawberry-coloured ball containing a refreshing acid pulp; this tree lines many of the streets in Batavia. The mango is also common, perhaps introduced from India. Bananas of several kinds are far more delicious than the bruised and dried specimens that find their way to our markets. The bread-fruit thrives, though not so much esteemed as in poorer islands, where it serves as food; and here its kinsman, the jack-fruit, grows often to weigh several stone, a single one making a man's load.

As to the fauna, this too is on the whole like that of the other Asiatic Malayan countries, with certain striking exceptions in the absence of the elephant, the orang-outang, and some of the brilliantly-plumaged birds found in the adjacent islands; while, on the other hand, Java has animals of its own, and specially abounds in gorgeous peacocks, pigeons, and jungle-fowl. It is richer in peculiar species than Sumatra or Borneo, a fact pointing to its earlier separation from the continent to which these islands once belonged.

The chief wonders of Java are the extraordinary number of temples, which in some parts dot the country with their ruins, chiefly in the centre of the island, making monuments to the civilization of their Hindoo builders. These remains are rare in the mountainous west end, never fully mastered by the Hindoo conquerors, while the dependent island Bali, to the east of Java, is still in the main of Indian faith.

The most remarkable temple is that of Boro-bodor, on which so much has been written, notably the official account by Dr. Conrad Leemans, with its sumptuous illustrations. Standing inland, towards the middle of the south coast-line, among the less well-preserved shells of innumerable other shrines, Buddhist and Brahman, this wonder of the world, at least twelve centuries old, had been overgrown and forgotten, till discovered by an English officer in 1814. It rises on a height, from a base over 500 feet square, a diminishing pile of solid and elaborate workmanship, some 120 feet high, culminating in a dome set about with rows of cupolas. Mr. Reith, one of the latest visitors, helps us to some impressions of this stupendous structure. "From a distance the temple looks like a great pyramid, cut into terraces, pierced with niches, and bristling with spikes; and as I looked at these terraces mounting like richly-sculptured steps to the crownless dagoba at the top, it came upon me all at once that this was the shape, in the mind of the writer of the Apocalypse, of the New Jerusalem, whose height, length, and breadth were equal." There are images of Buddha by the hundred, and the walls of the terraces form nearly three miles of sculpture gallery, where "I felt as if I were walking through a city of the dead. Vivid and lifelike the figures are; they are dramatized in every form of human activity—eating, drinking, sleeping, bathing, dressing, walking, talking, hunting, driving, riding. playing, dancing, fighting, sailing, ploughing, reaping. . . . Animal life is depicted with astonishing variety. Elephants, lions, oxen, monkeys, dogs or jackals, cats, goats, fish, serpents, turtles, peacocks, geese, doves, and other birds crowd the tablets. In one series that caught my attention there seemed to be an allegorical history of the subjugation of the ox by mankind. It began with the monkey, which is perhaps an undesigned confirmation of Darwinism. In the first picture the monkey has its arms lovingly

wound round the ox's neck, as if asking a favour; in the second the monkey is astride on the ox's back, and a third figure appears on the scene—a man. . . . Sea scenes are very common, the ships being pot-bellied junks with a single great sail, and their frequency is doubtless a reminiscence of dangers and inconveniences experienced by the artists in their voyage from Hindostan to

A Corner of the Terrace, Boro-Bodor. (From a photograph.)

Java. . . . I went round the terraces like a man with a book before him in an unknown tongue, but to those who are acquainted with the Buddhist legend there is in these pictured stones a complete history of early Buddhism, and a perfect delineation of the life and manners of the time when this building was reared. Each terrace is narrower and more ruinous than the one below it", till, from among broken images of Buddha at the top, one looks round upon "a smooth carpet of bright emerald . . . nailed to the earth by the weight of three great cones". Our lively writer notices how "the Cockneys of all nations

have cut their names on the soft stone"; and from inspiring meditation he is driven into bathos in quoting foolish and flippant remarks left by travellers in the visitors' book at the rest-house. Our generation, indeed, is out of tone with such wonders of pious labour.

SUMATRA

Separated from the Malay Peninsula by the Straits of Malacca, and by the Strait of Sunda with its "Thousand Islands" from Java, Sumatra is a much larger island than the latter, but makes a less important possession of Holland, being far more thinly populated and not so thoroughly mastered nor developed. It is over 1000 miles long, four times its greatest breadth, surrounded by outlying islands, many of considerable size, that all together form an area of about 170,000 square miles. Along its west coast runs a range of mountains, the highest point, near the north end, believed to be above 12,000 feet. One peak on the Equator, nearly 10,000 feet high, has been christened Mount Ophir, like that smaller mountain behind Malacca. Many of these summits are volcanoes, active or extinct, and their craters often form large lakes, while others still bubble with geysers and hot springs, or now and then discharge a hail of sand and sulphur to blast the crops around them. On the east side the country falls to the sea in a broad plain cut by deep navigable rivers that are gradually silting up the coast, so that some day Sumatra may again make part of the Asiatic mainland.

At Bencoolen, on the west coast, Britain retained a settlement till 1824, when it was exchanged for Malacca. We continued to claim rights at the north end, also given up by us in exchange for concessions on the Gold Coast, a bargain that proved a very bad one for the Dutch, since it brought them into collision with the Achinese, a warlike Mohammedan race who had long been masters here. Ever since, through the lifetime of a generation, the Dutch government of the Indies has had a costly and deadly war on its hands, the native patriots being so well defended by their malarious swamps that more than half the soldiers sent against them died of disease before seeing the enemy. This made an open sore on the colonial resources; and though after a long series of indecisive and sluggish campaigns the Achin war is now proclaimed to be at an end, it remains to be seen how far the victors will be successful in taming such obstinate adversaries, whose difficult country is as yet almost unknown, like other mountainous parts of Sumatra.

While Java has been for the most part cleared for cultivation, most of this country is still covered with virgin forests and often-flooded swamps, or by grass so tall and thick that a tunnel-like path must be hewn through it.[1] Such ways

[1] "The trees were magnificent in shape and foliage—giant pillars, 70 and 80 feet without a branch, supporting superb leafy crowns under whose shade a thousand men might bivouac, with trunk and limbs entwined and warped, often even to fatal strangulation, by an impossible unravelment of lianes and huge climbers, which hung in coils and loops, and stretched from tree to tree for hundreds of yards, themselves adorned, as with finely-curving scroll-work, with ferns and orchids and delicate twining epiphytes. Beneath this shade a second forest grows of lesser trees, below which again a dense thicket of low shrubs and herbs, Caladiums, and broad-leaved *Scitamineæ* (or Ginger family), and of horrid thorn- and hook-bearing rattan-palms, climbing and holding on to everything, blocking up every unoccupied space—the whole forming an impenetrable wall of vegetation." Sometimes at night these shades glow with extraordinary phenomena of phosphorescence. "The stem of every tree blinked with a pale greenish-white light, which undulated also across the surface of the ground like moonlight coming and going behind the clouds—

as open up the woods are mere tangled paths, here choked with thorns and tendrils, there blocked by fallen trunks twice a man's height, again broken by the mud-baths of elephants, in which the traveller may sink up to his arm-pits. The best roads are the rivers, along which lie the homes of the more tamed Moslem people, while the naked pagans naturally take refuge in inaccessible uplands. The former live in villages, where the *Balai* or public hall, and even the common houses, are often elaborately carved and coloured or inlaid with mother-of-pearl. In such homes the traveller may be surprised to find so far-fetched conveniences as oil-lamps and Swedish matches, where joints of green bamboo are used as cooking-pots, and tigers are scared away by torches of bark filled with dammar pitch. The family wealth appears loaded upon the unmarried girls in the shape of gold and silver ornaments, sometimes tearfully resigned for a husband; while the men's vanity shows itself in rich buckles and the hilts of their weapons. Blue is a common colour for their sarongs and head-gear, white being a sign of rank; and both sexes attire themselves in their gayest for the long-drawn festivals in which they delight, when, called together by the beating of a huge drum, the youths and maidens dance and sing, and the lads strip for a game of football, at which they display astonishing dexterity, though the ball is made of twisted rattans, and the rules are neither "rugger" nor "socker". Round the villages, watch-huts wreathed in creepers like gigantic bunches of flowers stand up over acres of rice, sometimes so well flooded that the harvest must be reaped from a boat, and the fields can lie fallow as fish-ponds.[1]

Photo. [Lambert & Co., Singapore

Battaks at Home

from a minute thread-like fungus invisible in the daytime to the unassisted eye; and here and there thick dumpy mushrooms displayed a sharp clear dome of light, whose intensity never varied or changed till the break of day; long phosphorescent caterpillars and centipedes crawled out of every corner, leaving a trail of light behind them, while fire-flies darted about above like a lower firmament."—H. O. Forbes, *A Naturalist's Wanderings in Sumatra.*

[1] Dr. Forbes, to whom we owe these glimpses of Sumatran life, gives us a pleasant picture from his voyage on

The inhabitants, who perhaps number four millions, are of more or less hybrid Malay stock in very various stages of civilization. Some show, though in a less degree than the Javanese, the traces of a former Hindoo culture, replaced by Mohammedanism, while others have remained mere savages. There is one tribe, the Battaks, who present the curious feature of a ceremonial cannibalism surviving along with a written language and considerable skill in arts and agriculture. The most advanced section appears to be that occupying the mountainous district of Menangkabo, said to have been the original home of the Malay race, where in later times became developed a native religion of somewhat austere morality, the spread of which was checked by Dutch conquest. On the west coast below this region is the chief port, Padang, a place of under 20,000 inhabitants. Others of some importance are Kota Raja, the capital of Achin, at the north end; and Palembang, the largest town, that mostly stands, or rather floats on rafts and boats, some way up one of the chief rivers of the east coast, which falls into the strait separating Sumatra from its largest dependent island, Banka. Palembang, indeed, has some more solid buildings, among them a fortified palace of the sultan, a remarkable mosque, and a tomb ascribed to Alexander the Great, whom, as in the highlands of the Indus, the local aristocracy claim as their ancestor. There is a well-built European and Chinese quarter, a good deal of trade being carried on from this inland port; Palembang has a name for making lacquer-ware and richly-embroidered sarongs. Beyond these towns and some more settled districts the Dutch exercise little authority over the petty native communities. Some roads and short bits of railway have been made, but as yet the magnificent scenery of Sumatra remains to a great extent unexplored.

The equator runs through the centre of the island, so that its north and south ends are differently affected by the monsoons, the atmosphere being kept in a state of disturbance which produces frequent squalls and severe thunderstorms. Generally speaking, the climate is moist and hot, and the vegetation of corresponding character, offering the necessaries of life on easy terms to a lazy people. The forests abound in great timber and in gorgeously-flowering trees. The chief product is black pepper, for which Sumatra is noted in the commercial world; and it also supplies considerable quantities of gutta-percha, dammar used in varnish, and other gums and resins. The camphor-tree is huge and frequent in the north, secreting lumps of this valuable juice, which elswhere must be distilled from the wood. Rice, coffee, indigo, tobacco, and other heat-loving crops are grown. In minerals the soil seems naturally rich. The gold so profusely shown in native ornaments is washed from the streams. Tin is worked on the island of Banka, and on the main island there are vast coal-fields that only require to be made accessible. Here, as elsewhere in the

one of the rivers, curtained with the most gorgeous display of tropical fruits and foliage. "Every now and then a creaking sound came up the water, catching the ear like the subdued screech of a buffalo-cart, produced by the monotonous turning of a large bamboo water-wheel, fixed where the banks of the river were high, to lift water into the adjacent rice-fields by bamboo buckets fixed at intervals in a lateral direction to their paddles. Water-birds of many species, and kingfishers in cobalt plumage, were constantly darting about, roused from their hunting grounds by our passing, many of which were honoured with a place in my collection. In addition to the ever-changing forms of the vegetation and the varied bird and insect life that flitted from side to side, there was no lack of human interest in the scenes. Now it was a skiff with flashing oars, with a scattering load of women and girls with their baskets on their way to the fields; now a village crowd in their many-coloured sarongs, clustered on the rocks or under the shade of some broad fig to see our flotilla pass by; here it was a patient plyer of the gentle art by a rippling bend; there a crowd of women in a shingly corner in their broad sun-hats and blue gowns washing the sand for gold."

archipelago, some of the most profitable labour is supplied by the ubiquitous Chinese.

Whatever prospects it offers to the colonist, Sumatra will long be a grand field for the hunter and natural history collector. The sunless jungles and deep-cut ravines swarm with wild animals, evident to ear and nose as well as to the eye, says the naturalist Carl Bock, who in one part found everywhere the odour familiar in the lion-house of the Zoological Gardens, while all day long, especially at sunrise and sunset, the forest reverberated the singing,

Tiger caught in a Trap, Sumatra. (From a photograph.)

screaming, and flapping of birds and the incessant howling of monkeys. The orang-outang of Borneo is found here, but only in one district. More common is the siamang, peculiar to Sumatra and Malacca. This gibbon-ape, about 3 feet high, is covered with long glossy hair, its face set in a gray or white beard that gives it a very human look. It has very long forearms, allowing it to swing from branch to branch with great activity; but on the ground it seems helplessly awkward, and when carried off from its leafy haunts, soon pines away in captivity. The long-nosed tapir is found here as in Borneo, not in Java; the Malay species is larger than that of South America, but so rare or so shy as to cut little figure in the accounts of travellers. The elephant and the two-horned rhinoceros are also natives. Snakes of all sizes, and birds and insects of every hue, help to make the dark shades lively. Among more harmless creatures, Carl Bock notices the kanchil, the smallest known kind of deer, a

pretty reddish-brown creature, only some 10 inches high; and among insects the mormolyce, whose oval body is about as big as a penny, but flattened so thin that it seems able to creep in between the pages of a closed book.

Dr. Forbes tells us how a single fig-tree, among the grove-like stems of which a man might almost lose himself, made feeding-ground for legions of squirrels, apes, and monkeys, for flocks of pigeons whose flitting to and fro kept the air in a whirl, and among countless smaller birds scores of the great hornbill, with its hammer-like beak and five-feet expanse of wing. The peacock, so common in Java, is not found in Sumatra. As in other Malay regions, the most glorious inhabitant of its forests is the argus pheasant, so called from the countless brilliant markings of its outspread tail. The male bird has the habit of clearing a "circus", 10 or 12 feet in diameter, round which he struts to display his magnificence before the eyes of his less-gorgeously-plumaged mate, perched on a branch or root to enjoy this spectacle.

It would be well if all the animals of Sumatra had no worse fault than vanity. Within a few yards of him the same traveller one day saw a lad struck to death by one blow of a tiger's paw; and though for the moment the brute was driven off by the rest of the party, next day it came right into the village in search of its victim. Again scared away by a general clamour, through the night it returned to scrape the body out of its grave, which, in full expectation of such an attempt, had been made unusually deep; and a trap was set by which the tiger some days later came to his own doom, amid the wild triumph of the villagers. To the indignation of the naturalist, who wanted to keep the skin uninjured, every man, woman, and child pressed forward to plunge a blade into it; but most contented themselves with dipping their knives and krises in the blood, or passing them over the powerful body, as a charm to temper their steel, while some devoured pieces of the heart and brain, in vengeance for the relatives this creature had destroyed. The tiger is confined to Java and Sumatra; but, with this striking exception, the latter island is less akin to the former in its animal life than it is to their neighbour Borneo.

BORNEO

After Australia, New Guinea, and Greenland, Borneo is the largest island in the world, its length about 800 miles, with a maximum breadth of nearly 700, and an area of at least 270,000 square miles—more than twice the size of the British Isles. In form it is a compact mass with comparatively slight excrescences, and may be described in homely language as shaped roughly like a shoulder of mutton, the knuckle-end pointing to the north-east. The centre of the island consists of a rocky boss of considerable elevation, from which mountain-chains run in various directions towards the coast, seldom approaching it, however, so closely as to be visible from the sea, where the land usually presents itself as a low wide plain of forests, swamps, and deltas. These plains are watered by numerous rivers, two of which—the Barito flowing to the south and the Kapuas to the west side—seem to be the largest rivers of the archipelago, though it is difficult to compute the length of their tortuous windings over hundreds of miles, still more their breadth, when in the rainy season they flood the forests on

either side. Many of these streams are navigable far into the interior. Here the mountain region has not yet been fully explored; but it is believed that Kinibalu, near the north end (about 13,700 feet), makes the highest point of Borneo as of all the Malay region, if New Guinea be excluded.

Situated, like Sumatra, upon the equator, Borneo is exposed to monsoons from different quarters, which cause the wettest season to vary in its incidence on the north and south. There can hardly be said to be any dry season. Reports differ as to the effect of the climate upon Europeans. Some have found it not so unhealthy as might be expected in the tropics; the glow is certainly tempered by abundant rain, as on the coast by refreshing sea-breezes. But this moist heat is very trying to some constitutions, while often-flooded swamps and masses of rotten vegetation have the usual malarious influence. Tropical diseases are rife, notably the fatal beri-beri, a form of paralysis that has now and then made its appearance in European hospitals. This much may be said for Borneo, that its climate is not so bad as that of some other parts of the archipelago, and that it is not fairly judged by the reeking lowlands which are the region least unknown.

The luxuriant vegetation of Borneo resembles that of the neighbouring islands, with an admixture of species from India and Australia. The animal life that fills its forests seems most akin to that of Sumatra, but with certain differences. Borneo is free from tigers, unless of the small and comparatively harmless "clouded" kind, while it has peculiar breeds of ferocious crocodiles; there is also a small and awkward-looking bear. The elephant and rhinoceros seem to be confined to the north end. This island has a monster almost its own, though famed in one part of Sumatra also, that great man-like ape, the orang-outang, or *mias* as it is called by the natives, which builds a nest amongst the branches of the trees. It appears, as a rule, not to exceed the height of 4 feet 2 inches, though stories are told of its attaining a far greater size. The height, however, gives a most inadequate idea of the creature's bulk. The body is as large as a man's, the legs being extremely short. The face sometimes measures over 13 inches across. The chief characteristic of the animal is its enormous forearms, over 7½ feet in spread. The strength and tenacity of life of the orang-outang are almost incredible. It does not fear to engage in a single-handed duel with a large crocodile, and natives who have witnessed these encounters tell us that, despite the scaly armour and ferocious jaws of its antagonist, the formidable ape almost always gets the best of the fight. Other monkeys abound in the dense forests, through which, Mr. Carl Bock declares, such active gymnasts might swing themselves from one end of Borneo to the other without touching the ground. These forests, though often gloriously tinted, give a depressing sameness to the scenery, but they hide many grand and striking features, such as the "Field of Stones" visited by the above-mentioned naturalist in his wanderings among the Dyaks.[1]

[1] "Covering an area of several square miles, and cropping up as it were in the centre of a vast forest, this Field of Stones is well calculated to arouse the superstitious dread of a savage people. Its appearance may be likened to that of a flower-garden over which a heavy hailstorm has swept — only that the hailstones were stones and rocks, ranging from small pebbles to huge boulders and angular masses many hundred tons in weight, while the plants were mighty giants of the forest towering 150 feet above the surface of the ground. Imagine such a scene, over which the repairing hand of time has thrown its veil in the growth of fresh vegetation which has shrouded the ruins beneath a mantle of green, and you can form an idea of the general effect of the *Jallan Batoe*. There scattered in wonderful confusion like the remains of a ruined castle; here standing erect and orderly as if carved by chisel and levelled by plumb-line and square; some in ponderous masses as 'large as a house', 50 or 60 feet in height, and of still

The history of the island is as obscure as much of its scenery. Here, as elsewhere in the archipelago, are found traces of Hindoo religious structures. Before Borneo became known to Portuguese navigators it had been invaded by Malay conquest and immigration from the other islands; but of less than two millions of people believed to be scattered over its whole expanse, not a quarter seem to be Malays proper. The majority of the natives, who may be looked on as aborigines, belong to the kindred race of Dyaks, further distinguished as Land and Sea Dyaks; but these again are largely amalgamated with their neighbours by intermarriage and by some tincture of the Mohammedan religion. In the north, it is said, they have a strong strain of Chinese blood.

Photo. Moses & Co., Singapore

Dyak Head-hunter of Borneo

The pure Dyaks are in some respects a remarkable people, who have earned a bad name for themselves by their custom of head-hunting, one likely to impress strangers with whom they came into contact. As in the case of the scalp, so prized among American Red Indians, a Dyak youth was held unworthy of the rights of manhood till he brought home an enemy's head; and such grisly trophies made admired decorations for the Dyak homes, raised on posts or perched on inaccessible rocks, as was natural when the taking of heads had a passive as well as an active mood. But, apart from this characteristic custom, the Dyaks resemble also the best Red Indian tribes in virtues that mark them out from other heathen. Their truthfulness is specially noticed by many who have come into contact with them. "I cannot tell you what I do not know, for fear I should lie", is a frequent Dyak response to questions. They are found manly, hospitable, and cheerful, with pleasing manners—unless to their enemies,

greater width and thickness; others heaped like so many petrified cocoa-nuts, or like a pile of forty-pounder cannon-balls; here bare and gaunt like the pillars of Stonehenge; there moss-covered and decked with ferns or gorgeous flowers; in all directions for miles and miles the stones lie scattered. Some of them have assumed fantastic shapes, in which the imagination can easily picture a travesty of the human form, or of other familiar objects; others again are marked with quaint devices, where wind and rain have put the finishing touches to natural cracks and crevices, and made them assume the appearance of deliberately carved inscriptions, like those seen on ancient weather-beaten tombstones."—Carl Bock's *Head Hunters of Borneo.*

—in colour rather lighter than the Malays, and in habits not so lazy or dirty. Like the Red Indians, they differ considerably in civilization. Their dress varies from a simple loin-cloth or strip of bark to garments of savage splendour; for war they array themselves fearfully in leopard and monkey skins, with a helmet of plaited rattan ornamented by gorgeous feathers.

A Dyak village is described by Ida Pfeiffer as consisting of two great huts, more than 150 feet long, standing opposite each other on piles. Here lived the married folk, while the young men of the community were quartered, after Melanesian custom, in a separate barrack a little way off, ornamented with a grisly garland of skulls hung up as an incentive to the valour that would give them full citizenship in their community. "The mode of entrance was by notched trunks of trees, placed against them like ladders, and always drawn up at night. Each hut had a spacious covered hall or vestibule, with doors all round leading to the chambers of the different families, most of which have one and sometimes two little rooms to themselves. These contain places for sleeping and cooking, and serve to stow away the little household utensils, but the large hall is the actual dwelling-place. Here they carry on their various occupations, here the children tumble about, and here the aged people rest. There is, indeed, quite the appearance of what we call domestic life among these Dyaks. The women work at plaiting mats and baskets, and the men at very pretty little boxes for tobacco or *siri* (betel-quid) as well as handsome handles for parangs."

Their native weapons are spears, the broad knives called parangs, wooden bucklers, and the blow-pipe and poisoned dart. They are given to tattooing, and to loading themselves with necklaces, anklets, armlets, and enormous pendants that distort the lobe of the ear in a manner repulsive to our ideas. They often live in considerable villages, cultivating fields, and carrying on trade with their more civilized neighbours. Now that their head-hunting propensity has to a large extent been checked by European influences, the piracy for which the Sea Dyaks were once notorious being also put down, this race appears as a promising element of native life, though in religion they have seldom risen above the dread of evil spirits, which is the practical part of faith with most savages.

Much the greater part of the island, all but the northern and north-western coast strip, belongs to the Dutch, whose influence indeed is little more than nominal among the jealously-independent tribes of the interior. The largest town of their colony, the chief one in Borneo, is Banjarmasin, near the south end, on a tributary of the Barito, where a gathering of rafts, boats, and buildings on piles houses nearly 50,000 people, of whom a very inconsiderable minority are Europeans. The chief Dutch port of West Borneo is Pontianak, near the mouth of the Kapuas River. Near the north end, on a branch of the Limbang, stands, or rather swims, Brunei, built in deep water on piles, with ships for storehouses, and boats for moving shops, so as to make another "Oriental Venice", but this is mainly a Venice of hovels and canoes. When first visited by Europeans in the sixteenth century it is said to have had a population of 100,000, which has now dwindled to less than a sixth part of that number. Here is the seat of a Malay sultan, who under British protection still keeps up a sort of independence between territories where, in two different ways, British influence has become predominant.

The north end of the island, along with Labuan in the Bay of Brunei, and

lesser islands, forming in all a territory about as large as Ireland, thinly populated by some 200,000 inhabitants, came into possession of the British North Borneo Company, its head station being at Sandakan, on the eastern coast. There are many other good harbours, and much rich country waiting to be opened out by capital and enterprise. At present the chief product is tobacco, Borneo cigars having taken a good place in the market. In Labuan there are also valuable coal-mines, the product of which is shipped by means of a short railway. Brunei and Labuan are now attached to the Straits Settlements.

Under the name of Sarawak an area of nearly 50,000 square miles on the north-western coast, watered by several navigable rivers, has been formed into a

Chinese Market, Sambas, Borneo. (From a photograph.)

state whose history makes one of the romances of the nineteenth century. Its founder, James Brooke, an English officer of Anglo-Indian parentage, after serving in Burma was drawn to this part of the world by a love of adventure, joined with a practical eye to trade. He found Borneo in 1839 distracted by civil war, and lent the sultan a strong hand towards restoring order, for which service he was rewarded by this potentate with the title of rajah and the government of a large province. Personal ambition seems not to have been his aim; he long tried in vain to have his acquisitions adopted by our Government. And it was a hatred of ill management and wasteful war that almost forced him into a career of benevolent despotism, upon which he entered in the spirit of his own words: "If it please God to permit me to give a stamp to this country, which shall last after I am no more, I shall have lived a life which emperors

might envy. If by dedicating myself to the task, I am able to introduce better customs and settled laws, and to raise the feeling of the people so that their rights can never in future be wantonly infringed, I shall indeed be content and happy."

From 1843 to 1855 Brooke was engaged, usually with the assistance of one or more British ships of war, in a succession of encounters with the Malay and Dyak pirates that for centuries past had devastated the coasts of Borneo and the adjacent islands, paralysing commerce and crippling industry. The number of these marauders he estimated at 50,000, but luckily there was no concerted action in their spasmodic atrocities. His attacks, though always successful, had for many years to be periodically renewed. Gradually, however, his steadfast energy convinced the pirates of the hopelessness of resistance; then his clemency in the hour of triumph conciliated their good-will. Work of a more pacific character was not neglected. Courts administering a rough but substantial justice were created, commerce and industry developed with the establishment of order and tranquillity, material prosperity followed in their train, and the person of the rajah became gradually invested in the eyes of the natives with an almost superstitious veneration. This was well shown when in 1857 a portion of his Chinese subjects, banded in secret societies, and enraged by the suppression of certain illegal practices, broke into unforeseen rebellion, obliging Brooke to fly from his residence, which was plundered and burnt. But in such a trial the Malays and Dyaks proved themselves only more devoted to the person of the rajah. He found himself quickly able to rally forces by which the rebellion was crushed and his authority established on a firmer footing than before.

While he went on extending the bounds within which the treacherous sultan's feeble dominion was replaced by peace and order, the necessarily autocratic nature of Brooke's rule furnished an easy target for his enemies at home, and for several years he was the object of repeated attacks by a section of the House of Commons. These attacks, which made much stir at the time, resulted, in 1853, in the appointment of a Commission of Enquiry. Almost the whole of the evidence redounded to the rajah's honour, and the commissioners decided in his favour on all the more essential points. Some time before this, he had been knighted; but no honours or compliments ever quite plastered the hurt caused him by the hostility of a certain school of English politicians who mistook for vulgar tyranny his single-minded devotion to the best interests of his people. A few years later, his health being now completely broken, he quitted Borneo for ever. He returned to England and died in 1868, having bequeathed the Government of Sarawak to his nephew.

The clamour against "Rajah Brooke" long having died away, he is now recognized as one of the most unselfish builders of Greater Britain, by whose life-work a valuable territory has been added to the Empire; and humanity must honour him as the man who did more than any other to put down Dyak piracy. The government of Sarawak remains, as it was under the first rajah, a benevolent despotism. There are no restrictions on the rajah's power, but he is accustomed to consult on matters of importance with his council, which consists of two Englishmen and three or four native chiefs. The capital is Kuching, sometimes known as Sarawak, near the west end of the whole state, much increased from the territory originally granted to Brooke. It is divided into five districts, with an Englishman at the head of each. Natives, however, are employed as far as

possible in all the subordinate offices, and the two races are said to work together in harmony, whilst the general comfort and contentment of the people bear gratifying testimony to the benefits of this rule, now exercised under British protection.

Sarawak and much of the lowland parts of Borneo are naturally rich. Sago figures well among the exports, which include most of the productions of neighbouring islands. Edible birds'-nests are largely exported to China, as also the trepang, or *bêche de mer*, a dried sea-slug that makes another Chinese delicacy. The Chinese part of the population have shown their patience in washing gold from the streams, which is now also extracted by quartz-crushing machinery. Diamonds are found, one kind claimed as being of peculiar hardness and brilliancy, but it is said that some of those sold as native are imported from the Cape by cunning Chinese merchants. Pearls and tortoise-shell are another contribution to the natural wealth of the island, which contains antimony, platinum, and mercury. Petroleum is known to exist in many parts. Besides its almost virgin forests, perhaps the main wealth of Borneo is in its great coal-mines, which under better conditions of transit will be worked at more profit than has hitherto been the usual experience. Mr. Carl Bock tells us how the formation of coal may be seen plainly going on, where "masses of decayed leaves, broken branches, grasses and undergrowth, several feet in thickness, had collected together, and were being compacted by the heavy rains and gradually covered by alluvial deposits". Thus Nature may be caught in her workshop at the labour of ages. One tool she makes little use of in Borneo, which shows few traces of the volcanic energy so apparent on other islands of this archipelago.

THE PHILIPPINES

By the long barrier of Palawan (250 miles) shutting in the Sulu Sea on the north, and by the Sulu islands strung along its south side, a projecting corner of Borneo seems almost to be joined to the Philippine group, of which the above-mentioned islands are dependencies. Soundings, however, show that while Palawan is connected with Borneo by a submarine bank, most of the Sulus, and all the other Philippines, are cut off by a deep sea-channel, which isolates the masses of broken land forming a northern extension of the Malay Archipelago, and throwing out further outposts towards Formosa. Of Palawan and the Sulus it may be said at once that they are mainly given up to wild and warlike natives, never thoroughly subdued by their nominal masters; and only of late were the Spaniards, with the help of their neighbours in Borneo, able to put down the fierce pirates who long had their lairs in the Sulu Archipelago. It gives some idea of the countless number of islands going to make up Malaysia, when we find the same word archipelago used for a group like the Philippines and for one of its sub-sections.

The Philippine Islands, strung out over 14 degrees of latitude, and computed, with their interspersed seas, to cover some 200,000 square miles, are believed to number more than 400, taking into account only those that are inhabited, about a dozen of them large enough to make some figure on a map, to which the reader may be referred for their names. The largest and most

important is Luzon, at the north end of the chain, on which stands the capital, Manila. This island is almost as large as England without Wales; and not much short of it in size comes Mindanao, at the south end, whose more compact form gives it an appearance greater than its comparative bulk; indeed Luzon would lose its superiority in this respect but for an excrescence joined on to it by a narrow peninsula. Luzon is inhabited by about 3,000,000 people, making half of the total population at its lowest estimate. The whole group forms one long mass, broken into fragments, and opened up by arms of the sea that temper its tropical climate. Extending so far from north to south, the islands vary in climatic conditions, especially as to the incidence of their wettest season, which on one side of the mountain backbone comes with the north-east, on the other with the south-west monsoon, while some points exposed to torrents from both monsoons have an almost incessant rainfall. At Manila, which is favourably situated in the shelter of a range of hills, this is nearly 100 inches, but in other parts perhaps twice as much. Most of the islands are well watered by streams running down from considerable mountain ranges, among which some volcanic peaks stand up to the height of 10,000 feet. These conditions give a rich and varied vegetation and all the colours of tropical scenery. Yet here, more truly than in Ceylon, might the poet have pointed his antithesis to "every prospect pleases".

Long before "Wallace's Line" was thought of, another dividing line had been run through this region. The Philippines were discovered, at the cost of his life, by Magellan, a Portuguese navigator in the service of Spain, and they came to be named after our Queen Mary's gloomy husband, then Prince of the Asturias, though at first St. Lazarus stood their godfather. For a time, by calling them "Islands of the West" and "Islands of the East" respectively, both claimants sought to beg the question whether they should belong to Spain or Portugal, finally settled by a papal bull placing these islands in the western hemisphere, which the Pope had given over as a Spanish sphere of influence. We shall see what the influence of Spain has been in America; and the Philippines differed from her other colonies chiefly in longer remaining under the Spanish yoke, not without fitful attempts to shake it off.

In the middle of the eighteenth century Manila was seized by a British force before the out-of-the-way colony learned its mother country to be at war; but this chance conquest was lightly given up by the Peace of Paris, an event chronicled at Manila by a boastful monument commemorating what it calls the expulsion of the British. During our occupation of the capital, indeed, we met with some desultory resistance in the country; but the Spaniards, too, had to struggle against what in some parts was chronic rebellion. At the end of the lately-expired century they were making head against a serious rising led by

Aguinaldo, a remarkable young native, who showed himself likely to avenge the cruelties through which the Spaniards had tried to crush this movement in the bud, shooting many of the prominent patriots on suspicion, and cramming more than eight score of them into a Black Hole, whence, after one hot night's agony, a third of the number were taken out dead.

Such was the game of embittered feeling, where an unexpected hand came to be played by the United States, brought into collision with Spain over the Cuban question. Within a week after the declaration of war, in the spring of 1898, Admiral Dewey sailed into the magnificent inland sea of Manila, and in a few hours annihilated the Spanish fleet, idly hiding itself in the harbour of Cavité, an exploit as glorious to one force as shameful to the other. The victor had to wait three months for the arrival of troops to take possession of the city, as was done after a mere show of resistance. Then, still more honourable to the Stars and Stripes than American gallantry was the humanity with which the leaders concerned themselves to save the city from slaughter and pillage by Aguinaldo's forces, who had been besieging it in conjunction with them, but were not allowed to enter on its fall.

Between these ill-joined allies a very serious difference of opinion soon manifested itself. Aguinaldo's view was that the deliverers ought to leave the Philippines to a native government, of which, under one title or other, he should be the head. The Americans, for their part, had no mind to hand over this fine conquest as scene for a burlesque on republican institutions. The result was a fresh struggle, in which the superior discipline and resources of the strangers were heavily handicapped by the climate, the difficulty of the country, and the distance from their base. This war was dragged out at heavy cost of life and money, till in 1901 the capture of Aguinaldo seemed to break the mainspring of resistance; but the native discontent still smoulders; and inaccessible parts are infested by insurgents or robbers. The new masters, whose constitution has no room for unworthy members, seek to form good citizens or subjects by a process of schooling that as yet goes to make the Filipinos more lazy than before, and not less conceited. Uncle Sam, showing natural awkwardness as a conqueror, fails to win the affection or confidence of these scholars; and though he vigorously applies to a chronic bankruptcy his own system of tariffs, it is to be feared the "white man's burden" in this case will prove long a more heavy than profitable one, denounced by a strong body of American opinion as against the spirit of the republic. To soothe this conscience, a local Legislative Assembly has been called, but its hankerings after independence seem at present out of question.

Naturally rich as the Philippines are, or might be made to be, they suffer from heavy drawbacks in the earthquakes and other volcanic disturbances that periodically convulse them, in the destructive typhoons which the change of monsoon generates round their northern seas, in disastrous inundations, in the epidemics of cholera, small-pox, and other virulent diseases that from time to time make havoc among the people, and in locust swarms that prey upon the crops. And not the least plague was the government of corrupt officials and bigoted priests that infected this colony with the decay of its mother country.

The aboriginal natives appear to be of a Negrito stock, who in some parts have blended with the intruding Malays and with Chinese immigrants, as the Malays themselves show, about the Spanish settlements, a mongrel admixture of blood that confuses racial characteristics. The Filipino is noticed as being

Native Fruit Girl, Manila

more jealous of his wife's honour than of his daughter's. At one end of the jumble are found rude pagan tribes, using blow-pipes and poisoned arrows; at the other, fierce Moslem Malays, called *Moors* by the Spaniards, by whom they were never thoroughly subdued. The mass of the population, known as Indians, among whom the Tagals of Luzon seem the most important body, and after them the Bisayan race of other islands, have been more or less civilized by conversion to superficial Christianity, which was a main object with the original colonists. These natives were easily brought to the dramatic services and tawdry images of a Church that did not forbid their favourite pastimes, cock-fighting and gambling, after due attendance at mass. Even among their heathen neighbours the crucifix is sometimes cherished as a charm; but the professed worshippers are apt to be very poor Christians, though by childish submission to their pastors they may qualify as good sons of the Church. The priests themselves are little less ignorant than the people, and the native or half-caste clergy set no high example of morality. As Java is said to be the most governed country of the Malay region, the Philippines were the most priest-ridden. The Church made a more powerful engine of government than the State, with its staff of European alcaldes and native headmen, whose main function was that of tax-gatherers under officials as self-seeking as short-sighted in their fiscal policy. Since the American occupation, while Protestant missionaries have pressed in to weed this field of tares, a native teacher named Aglipay has preached up an independent version of Christianity, which appears to be gathering numerous adherents by an appeal to ignorant superstition and race feeling, as in the similar case of the Ethiopian Church in South Africa. This is not a solitary instance of half-heathen schism; and on one island a set of ruthless rebels, known as *pulajans*, wear a red cross as their badge.

The type of character stamped by such pastors and masters upon a tropical people may easily be imagined. The Filipino is lazy, dull, unenterprising, good-natured, submissive unless in fits of exalted resentment, and temperate unless in his love of gambling and childish excitement. There are marked individual exceptions, such as José Rizal, who studied medicine in Europe and became known as an accomplished poet, linguist, and novelist, only to be shot by the Spaniards when he returned to share the troubles of his native country. Aguinaldo, on the other hand, whose luck was to head the patriotic aspirations, seems to have been a very ignorant person, who owed his success to unscrupulous force of character. One talent the mass of the people have is for music, which they enjoy almost as much as fireworks, both entering largely into their religious festivities. They show considerable taste in weaving home-made fabrics, one of them called *pina*, made from the fibre of the pine-apple, being of remarkable delicacy; this, sometimes richly embroidered and coloured in beautiful patterns,

supplies the gala dress of the women. The men affect rather some attempt at European costume, with this independent feature, that the shirt, the chief garment in such a climate, is worn outside the pantaloons, so as fully to display its texture, perhaps well worth display, but not always in point of cleanliness. They show cleverness in the plaiting of their mushroom-like straw hats, mats, and such articles as cigar-cases, on which a great deal of minute labour is bestowed; and they are as deft in the making as ready in the consumption of the cigars and cigarettes that are a speciality of Manila.

Manila, on the west coast of Luzon, is the capital, and by far the most important town, containing, with its adjacent villages, from 300,000 to 400,000

Photo. W. H. Rau

Native House, Philippine Islands

souls, though less than a third of this number make the population of the city itself. It stands on the Pasig, a river flowing from a large lake some dozen miles behind, to fall into the Bay of Manila, a huge natural haven formed by a circular sea nearly 200 miles round, which is not sheltered from the south-west monsoon; but large ships can take refuge in the deep port of Cavité, 10 miles from the river-mouth where smaller vessels find anchorage. The latter harbour, below the city, has lately been improved. On the Pasig's right bank stands the old city, closely and solidly built within thick walls and weed-grown moats, as if huddled together to hold up against the earthquake shocks that have left traces upon the heavy masonry and the narrow streets darkened by overhanging balconies. On the other side is the business town, with the Escolta, the main street of shops. The Europeans live chiefly in roomy suburbs up the river, from which tram-cars or boats take them down to their offices, and to the Luneta seaside promenade, the evening rendezvous round the band-stand. Then there

are crowded native quarters, among them one given up to the Chinese, who, in spite of prohibition and persecution in old days, have numerously settled here, and help to tinge the *mestizo* hotch-potch making the main part of the population.

The new houses are built far less solidly than the old ones, that sought by strength to fortify themselves against such catastrophes as have so often wrecked Manila, where in 1863 the cathedral and all the public buildings were thrown down by an earthquake which killed 400 people and injured five times as many, destroying also a great amount of property. As a precaution against such ever-imminent disaster, a lighter and lower style of construction is now preferred, cloth being used instead of plaster for ceilings, and the roofs covered with galvanized iron or tin instead of tiles, which are apt to be whirled off as dangerous missiles, while thatch is exposed to the risk of frequent conflagration; and the panes of sliding windows, seldom closed, are filled with translucent shell, which proves not so brittle as glass. Not only earthquakes have to be feared, but the vehement cyclonic hurricanes that in this region are so destructive by land as by sea, leaving behind their passage a swathe of ruin, laying low buildings and crops, felling timber, and stripping off the foliage, to be quickly revived by nature, as if in warmth of repentance for her mood of sudden fury. The typhoon may well wreak its wrath on the telegraph wires that set men on their guard against it. The Jesuits' Observatory at Manila keeps a watch on the rise and progress of such storms, signalled to parts far and near; then all vessels put out what extra cables and anchors they can, the church bells peal forth warning and supplication for the city, and a crier stalks through the streets giving prudent citizens to know that they must lose no time in shutting up their windows and roping down their roofs. A disquieting hush precedes the outbreak, that begins with sudden gusts and scuds, gradually rising to its full force. Everyone is imprisoned at home, doubtful each moment if his house will not be blown down over him, or be washed away by the torrents of rain dashed against it, till at last, after hours of sleepless uproar, the storm sobs itself out over a scene of far-spread wreckage. The narrower the track of these disturbances the more intense is their force. More than once Manila has been visited by one that destroyed thousands of houses. It may also be kept in darkness for days by the eruption of distant volcanoes, one of which is said to have cost the lives of 40,000 people, through an epidemic caused by the death of the fish in a lake raised to boiling-point by showers of red-hot lava.

The products for which Manila is most noted are its cigars, and hemp made from the fibre of abaca, a plant of the banana family so common and so useful in the tropics. Sugar, coffee, and indigo are other exports. The rice which, with sweet potatoes, makes the chief food of this lazy people, has to be largely imported. Bananas grow everywhere, and cocoa-nuts; and the Spaniards introduced cocoa to supply their favourite beverage, chocolate. The woven stuffs manufactured here are chiefly for home use. The ports next in importance to Manila are Iloilo, on the island of Panay, and Cebu or Zebu, on the central island of that name; but there are other good harbours not likely to be neglected by Brother Jonathan.[1] Hitherto the greater part of the shipping, in spite of hostile tariffs,

[1] As an instance of the vigour with which the United States Government set about its administration may be mentioned its purchase of the floating dry dock in Havana harbour, to be towed 12,000 miles across the world, for use here. New harbours are being constructed for Manila and Iloilo.

has come from Britain. The Germans also are well represented. The standard money is now the "Conant" dollar, worth only one-half of the United States dollar.

Further natural resources of the islands are the minerals, gold, copper, iron, coal, sulphur, &c., known to be available. Under the Spaniards the territory was little explored and very imperfectly exploited, their policy being to discourage the making of roads that might unsettle a grand-paternal system of government. Other Europeans seem sometimes to have got on better with

Cock-fighting, the Filipino's favourite sport

Photo. W. H. Rau

the natives than their old masters, and the new ones may be trusted to make more of the country. Perhaps the best-known spot in the interior is the peninsula of Jala-Jala, on the lake above Manila, where a large estate was laid out by M. de la Gironière, an adventurous French surgeon, who lived here for twenty years, and wrote a highly coloured account of his experience. He was often visited by strangers, and delighted to show them the marvels of his domain, especially in the region of sport—huge wild buffaloes that made dangerous game when roused in their forest lairs, gigantic boas that could hoist a wild boar up the tree to which they clung, greedy crocodiles, and iguanas as long as a man. More accurate naturalists declare that the Philippines are less well stocked with large animals than the Malayan islands already mentioned. The elephant, the tiger, and the rhinoceros are not found here; and in monkey life this group is as deficient as in fierce beasts of prey. One native, however, is the flying lemur, which, by extending a parachute-like membrane, can sail from tree to tree; and this has a variety of bats to keep it company. Common

enough are venomous snakes, and such minor pests as leeches, spiders, ants, cockroaches, and rats, to deal with which last a snake is sometimes kept in a house roof, as we keep a cat. The Philippines are particularly rich in mollusca, some of them found nowhere else, but on the whole showing, as do other branches of the fauna, a connection with both the Indian and the Australian side of the Malay world.

CELEBES AND THE MOLUCCAS

On the south the Celebes Sea separates the Philippines from Celebes, an island of singular shape that has been compared to a star-fish. In area rather larger than England, it spreads itself out in four sprawling limbs, with mountain chains for bones, which at some points are supposed to rise to 10,000 feet. The interior is not thoroughly explored, but a glance at the map will show that Celebes does not afford space for great river-courses; the longest, the Sadang, flowing down to the west coast, is about 200 miles. It is known to contain considerable lakes and volcanic craters, some of which in the northern part are still active. The main island is pierced by deep gulfs, which make its climate a salubrious one for the tropics, no part being 100 miles from the sea; while its central situation keeps it sheltered by its neighbours from the rainy winds of the west, and to some extent from the parching siroccos that in summer blow from Australia. The southern end has a wet and a dry season, while the rainfall of the northern part, near the equator, is at once more regular and more moderate.

In spite of such advantages the population of this large island is guessed at no more than a million. Whatever were its aborigines, it has long been invaded by a Malay stock, which, under Mohammedan culture, has gained some knowledge of literature and useful arts, while other tribes remain head-hunting savages, wearing bark clothing and speaking dialects incomprehensible to their neighbours. Of the civilized people the most notable are the Bugis, renowned as sailors and traders all over the archipelago, where their settlements, on a smaller scale, match those of the Chinese.

The Bugis are at home in the south-western peninsula, near the end of which stands the chief town, its name known in Europe by "thine incomparable oil, Macassar", and by the broad strait, separating the island from Borneo, to which this settlement gives its name. Macassar, a place of some 20,000 people, is the chief seaport of the Dutch colonies outside of Java, and carries on a lively trade in which the Bugis take no small part. Here the Dutch, after driving out the Portuguese, first established themselves in 1660. During Napoleon's wars this colony, like Java, fell into the hands of the British, but was given up at the peace.

The only other important settlement is on the mountainous and volcanic northern promontory, where Menado, on the west side, is the chief place; but Kema, on the east coast, is used as a harbour during the western monsoon. Menado is a small town, prettily scattered through tropical gardens, standing in a populous district, where the natives have become Christians as well as industrious. This well-cultivated corner of the country owes its prosperity

chiefly to coffee, which has a high reputation for excellence. Other products are dammar, trepang, copal, nutmegs, copra, and tortoise-shell, and the island is believed to be well off for minerals. The cocoa-nut here offers its various values, among which, it appears, may be reckoned a kind of pearl concretion occasionally found in this fruit, as in other trees, but so rarely as to be treasured by the natives for charms. Copra, so often mentioned among the exports of these islands, is strips of cocoa-nut dried in the sun, to be pressed in the mills of Europe, the extract coming into use in soap, candles, and "best olive-oil", while the refuse goes to make the oil-cake that fattens our cattle.

As to its natural vegetation, the island is not well enough known for more than a general statement that the mountains appear covered with dense forest

View in the Interior of Celebes: Chalk-hills on the River Kalupini. (Drawn from a photograph.)

which must contain much valuable timber. Its animal life certainly has an independent character, going to show that it may have been originally part of an ancient continent, distinct from either Asia or Australasia, but possibly connected with Africa. There is a marked absence of large mammals and fierce beasts of prey; indeed in quadrupeds it is notably poor. On the other hand, it has some creatures almost peculiar to it, as the babirusa, a kind of hog with four tusks turning upwards like horns, and the anoa or sapiutan, which seems something between a cow and an antelope. A black tailless baboon is common; and here is the farthest northern point of the cuscus, a marsupial opossum-like animal by which the fauna of Celebes is linked to that of Australasia. Its birds seem more allied to those of Asia; and among them occurs the cuckoo, so familiar to us by ear. Dr. Hickson's *Naturalist in the Celebes* tells us of the centipedes, hairy spiders, and ants that make themselves a nuisance here as elsewhere;

and he was consoled in his lonely exile by the marvels of marine zoology that abounded on the coral-reefs of a neighbouring island.

Celebes, from its broken outline, was originally taken for a group of separate islands. About it are several smaller islands and groups forming a link with the Moluccas or Spice Islands, once so coveted by European powers, now quietly and not very profitably possessed by the Dutch. Here is the native home of the cloves and nutmegs, which at one time the Dutch sought to enhance in value by extirpating them in all but certain spots under their complete control; but the cultivation of these plants has now spread to other parts of the world. The clove is an evergreen tree of the myrtle tribe, with purplish flowers abounding in the pungent aromatic oil so well known to our cooks. The nutmeg bears fruit and flowers during the greater part of the year, best grown under the shade of the lofty kanari, whose nuts also are valued for their oil. Among a circle of deep-green glossy leaves the peach-like fruit of the nutmeg bursts open to show the dark-brown nut bedded within crimson mace, most beautiful fruit of a beautiful tree.

Neither of these spices, so prized in Europe, is used by the natives. Of far more account to them is the sago, which is here found replacing rice as a staple food, as it does in parts of Borneo and in the Papuan islands. The sago-palm grows wild in moist ground, bearing leaves more than twice a man's length, with a midrib as thick as his leg, strong enough to build houses with, while the smaller leaves furnish thatch and are used as beds. When about a dozen years old or more the tree dies in the effort of throwing out a huge head of flowers and nuts. Cut down just before this culmination, its trunk, perhaps 20 feet long and 4 or 5 round, is found filled with a mass of white pith, as hard as a dry apple, which, broken into powder and kneaded in water to separate the fibre, yields a starchy matter refined into the sago of commerce. The people of the Moluccas bake it into cakes that, dried in the sun, will keep for years. Mr. Wallace calculates how thus, by ten days' labour, a man can feed himself for a whole year, so that in sago countries there are more idle hands than in those where rice is grown, a fact not tending to the advancement of the people. Another product of this region, obtained from the leaves of a tree, is cajeput-oil, said to be a good remedy for rheumatism.

The inhabitants of the Moluccas, less than half a million at the most, make a very mixed race, the Malays having blended with Papuan and other races; and often the interior of the islands is given up to tribes of frizzly-headed savages, while here and there are found communities of *Sirani*—a corruption of Nazarenes—mongrels of Portuguese blood. These nominal Christians show little of the graces of their ancestral religion beyond wearing trousers, and in one respect they are inferior to the pure Malays, whose Islamism keeps them from the corruption of drink. *Alfuros* is a name loosely used hereabouts to denote the wilder natives, in whom Papuan characteristics appear predominant.

Other forms of life, too, show us that we have passed out of Asia. Quadrupeds are now rare, the pig seeming the only placental mammal that may not have been introduced by man, while we here meet the marsupials of Australia. On the other hand, a great variety of birds have found their way on to the Moluccas from neighbouring islands, the largest of them the wingless helmeted cassowary, as tall as a man, that wanders through the forests of Ceram. The sea-coasts are particularly rich in the nautilus and other rare

shells, of which in the seventeenth century the German Rumphius made a famous collection at Amboyna, where Mr. Wallace was moved to such admiration.[1]

The three largest islands of the group are Ceram, with an area about equal to Wales; Gilolo or Halmahera, almost as large (rather larger by one account), spread out in sprawling arms like Celebes; and Buru, about half that size. The important places, however, are smaller islands on which the Dutch have made their settlements. The principal port is Amboyna, on an island, or group of islands, near the south-west corner of Ceram, some way to the south of which are the small Banda Islands, celebrated for their nutmegs, as through the destructive volcano of Gunong Api. The town of Amboyna, containing about half the population of its island (some 30,000), is described as a pleasant and not unhealthy place, though during the wetter summer season here rain is said sometimes to fall for a fortnight continuously. This is the seat of the Dutch governor of these regions, whose province includes part of Celebes. Ternate, the harbour of the northern Moluccas, is off the western coast of Gilolo, sheltered between two volcanic peaks that make most picturesque but perilous neighbours. Tidor, an island to the south of Ternate, has a certain note as seat of the Malay sultan, whose suzerainty, as far as the coast of New Guinea, was taken over by Holland. Among other stations to which Dutch steamboats make a monthly round, Kilwaru, off the south-east end of Ceram, presents the strange appearance of floating on the water, being built on piles upon a sand-bank a few acres in extent. These ports, like Macassar, have been made free by the Dutch, a reversal of the jealous policy long maintained by them here. Amboyna got once an ill renown through the cruelties by which, in early days, they extirpated an attempt at English rivalry.

The larger islands of the Moluccas, under their native chiefs, are but slightly known to Europeans; and in the groups connecting them with New Guinea there appears little trace of civilization beyond a tendency on the part of "prominent citizens" to array themselves in cast-off European clothes that by age have been toned down into harmony with their skins, tall hats being held as a particular mark of dignity worth handing over from generation to generation.

THE LESSER SUNDA ISLANDS

The Sunda Islands are the long, volcano-studded chain curving round on the south of the archipelago from Sumatra to New Guinea. The Lesser Sundas is a general name for the islands that, beyond Java, stretch for 1200 miles like

[1] "Passing up the harbour, in appearance like a fine river, the clearness of the water afforded me one of the most astonishing and beautiful sights I have ever beheld. The bottom was absolutely hidden by a continuous series of corals, sponges, Actinia, and other marine productions, of magnificent dimensions, varied forms, and brilliant colours. The depth varied from about 20 to 50 feet, and the bottom was very uneven, rocks and chasms and little hills and valleys offering a variety of stations for the growth of these animal forests. In and out among them moved numbers of blue and red and yellow fishes, spotted and banded and striped in the most surprising manner, while great orange or rosy transparent medusæ floated along near the surface. It was a sight to gaze at for hours, and no description can do justice to its surpassing beauty and interest. For once the reality exceeded the most glowing accounts I had ever read of the wonders of a coral sea. There is perhaps no spot in the world richer in marine productions, corals, shells, and fishes, than the harbour of Amboyna."—Wallace's *Malay Archipelago*.

a series of stepping-stones towards Australia, with which and with New Guinea most of them are in various respects closely connected. They almost at once begin to exhibit characteristics very different from those of the Asiatic islands. The warm, moist air that keeps the latter evergreen is here during part of the year exchanged for the parching breath of Australian deserts. Instead of rich tropical jungles, we now find naked rocks thinly shaded by gum-trees, thorny scrubs, and other vegetation familiar in Australia. The large carnivora disappear, their place being taken by a few marsupial quadrupeds. Birds and insects, if still abundant, are of a different type. And as we approach New Guinea and Australia, we find the inhabitants presenting more and more the features of the Papuan race, their tall forms, their dark skins, their mop-like shocks of frizzy hair, their loud exuberance and frivolity contrasting with the melancholy reserve of Malay manners, characteristics, indeed, often confused by intermarriage, and by an admixture of blood from other sources. The strain of the wandering Malays is, as might be expected, stronger on the coasts, while the less-modified heathen tribes must rather be looked for in the interior of the islands. On the coasts, too, is more prevalent a nominal Mohammedanism, and there are patches of not less nominal Christianity.

Nearly all these islands are claimed by the Dutch, whose officials, scattered here and there, interfere little with the native chiefs. Communication between the islands, even when in sight of each other, is often made difficult by violent currents and shifting winds, through which the voyager in ill-equipped Malay craft may, day after day, find himself tantalizingly baffled with his destination full in view. Many of them are hardly known to Europeans, and their area and population can, in most cases, only be guessed. Their importance, unless in a scientific view, is so small that it will be enough to do little more than name the chief points of the Lesser Sunda chain, sometimes also called the Timor Group, from its largest member.

Bali, which has the by-name "Little Java", is a mountainous island of about 2000 square miles, separated from Java at one point by hardly more than a mile of shallow sea. It is highly cultivated and densely populated by a people who seem much what the Javanese must have been in olden days.[1] While some of the people are Mohammedan, the dominant religion is still a form of Hindooism, with its caste prejudices; and the ancient sacred language of Java has been preserved. There are several volcanic peaks, extinct and active, on the island, the highest of them, Gunong Agong, over 12,000 feet. After the rice that feeds its inhabitants, the principal production is coffee; and the chief town is Buleleng, a port on the north coast.

Lombok, rather larger than Bali, is separated from it by a strait about 20 miles broad; but this is the deep sea through which runs "Wallace's Line", and in crossing it we pass at once from Asia into the purlieus of Australia, so far as natural productions are concerned—the rich forests have almost disappeared; the sparser woods are peopled by cockatoos, honeysuckers, and other birds hardly known on the Asian side. The Mohammedan people have been conquered by Balinese invaders, whose Hindoo religion is predominant here. The population is estimated at 300,000. The centre of the island is elaborately cultivated by help of irrigating channels and terraces, producing rice, maize, tobacco, fruit, and

[1] Some accounts make Bali more thickly peopled than Java, estimates of the population varying between 500,000 and 800,000.

vegetables. Its most striking natural features are volcanic lakes and peaks in the north and south, one mass, known as the Peak of Lombok, rising to a height of more than 12,000 feet.

Sumbawa, separated from Lombok by 10 miles of sea, is more than twice as large, but with only half the population of its neighbour, the people here being Mohammedans under their native princes. This mountainous island is almost cut in two by a deep gulf dividing it into the sultanates of Sumbawa and Bima, whose capitals each contain a few thousand inhabitants. Naturally rich, it is best known by its volcanoes, one of which, Tamboro, on the northern promontory, was nearly half blown away in the terrific eruption of 1815 that is said by fire and famine to have cost the lives of 70,000 people—12,000 overwhelmed round

A Village in Wetta, Sunda Islands. (Drawn from a photograph.)

the base of the mountain itself. After this destruction of half the population their place was taken by Bugi and other immigrants, who live exposed to the same appalling danger.

Flores, the next island, is rather larger, 232 miles long by 10 to 35 broad. The interior and its aboriginal inhabitants are little known. On the coast the best-marked points are formidable volcanoes and bays once shunned as lairs of pirates, who appear not to be yet wholly extirpated. The eastern end was, up till half a century ago, claimed by the Portuguese; the whole island is now under Dutch control. Its trade in tortoise-shell, sandal-wood, cinnamon, and birds'-nests is mostly in the hands of the enterprising Bugis.

To the south of Flores, Sumba or Sandal-wood Island (about 4000 square miles), gives a name to the fine breed of sandal-wood ponies exported from these islands to Java and elsewhere. To the east, Flores is almost continued by a

string of volcanic islands, the largest of which are Adenara, Solor, Lomblen, Pantar, and Allor *alias* Ombay, separated by narrow, perilous straits; then, farther east, at wider intervals, come Wetta, Roma, the Sermatta Islands, and others, little more than names in geographical knowledge, forming a line of volcanic vents that curve up towards the Moluccas.

To the south of this line lies Timor, a mountainous island 300 miles long, the largest of the Lesser Sunda Group. The population is guessed at over 300,000, most of them in the south-western end, which belongs to the Dutch, with Kupang as their capital. The other end, rather more than half the island, is still a Portuguese possession, but not a very profitable one to judge by the poor streets and fever-stricken faces seen at Dilli, its chief town. As usual, the Portuguese have got little good for themselves out of settlements once so much coveted; for the people they have done little more than introduce a bastard Christianity, and into the mixture of races a strain of their own blood that seems to have the curious effect of making the native skins rather blacker. In the interior the inhabitants are still pagans, with *Luli* sacred places and customs of taboo such as are familiar in the South Sea Islands. The state of mutual violence in which they live is shown by their houses, often fenced in and perched upon the precipitous ridges and peaks that characterize the wild inland scenery. Trade is so inconsiderable that in one year only a dozen vessels visited Dilli. Timor is adjoined by several smaller islands; and some way to the west, towards Sumba, lies Savu, which appears to be more thickly populated by a finer race — perhaps of Arab or Hindoo origin — than the heathen mongrels of Timor.

Timor is a Malayan word meaning "Eastern Island", hence the name Timor-laut, "far Eastern Island", given to one farther east which, with its adjacent islets, is also known as the Tenimber group. These are low-lying coral islands, the highest elevation being only some 2000 feet. Till Dr. H. O. Forbes, in 1882, spent three months here with his brave wife, they were quite unknown to Europeans, given up to a mixed race who show industry in combing out or frizzling up their shocks of hair, and a skill in carving wood and bone, remarkably out of keeping with their general savagery, while in a strong propensity to drunkenness on fermented palm-juice they seem also ripe for certain civilized influences. Their artistic talents are turned to account in the making of hideous idols or fetish figures, expressing the low ideas of religion which they share with other Papuans. Their houses, "though little more than floor and roof", are neatly built on piles; they grow Indian corn, sweet-potatoes, &c., have pigs and fowls, and are good fishermen with spears and arrows. The interior contains considerable forests, suggesting rather the coral-island vegetation than that of Australia; yet one notable feature is clumps of scarlet blossoms, akin to the Australian fire-tree. Buffaloes run wild in the woods of one island, perhaps introduced by Malay traders; but this region is naturally poor in animal life.

Farther east come the Ké or Kei Islands, and beyond, near the coast of New Guinea, the Aru Islands, a considerable mass of land cut up by narrow channels. The people here are mainly savage Papuans, though long visited by Chinese and Malay traders in search of pearls from the shallow seas, and birds of paradise from the forests, whose gorgeous plumage makes a leading article of commerce in this region. The Great Bird of Paradise, which Mr. Wallace calls "one

of the most beautiful and the most wonderful of living things", seems to be confined to the Aru Islands and to corresponding latitudes of New Guinea, where its harsh note is the most common sound in the woods. The Lesser Bird of Paradise has a wider range on the mainland of New Guinea; and there is another kind, the Red Bird of Paradise, that Mr. Wallace believed to be peculiar to the island of Waigiou.[1] These he distinguishes as true Birds of Paradise; but the name is extended to other brilliant birds of this region, in all some forty species. The natives catch them by ingenious snares, or shoot them skilfully with arrows, the tip so blunted as to kill the bird by force of the blow without injuring its plumage. It seems impossible to keep them alive, as they soon pine away in captivity; the skins are the coveted commodity in which the people pay tribute exacted from them by the Dutch or by the Malay Sultan of Tidor, who claims their allegiance. They also collect tortoise-shell, trepang, birds'-nests, and other articles of trade. They have vegetables, sago, and sugar-cane, but are too lazy to cultivate crops of grain, or even to plant cocoa-nuts; and their gains from the traders go chiefly on arrack, tobacco, and so forth. To their poor diet, varied only by an occasional wild pig or kangaroo, Mr. Wallace attributes the prevalence of loathsome skin diseases among some of them.

Towns are not to be looked for here; but Dobbo, a small island on the west side of the Aru Group, gives an anchorage at which Chinese and Bugi traders assemble during the first half of the year to hold a market with the natives, the place being almost deserted in the later months. Mr. Wallace seems to have been the first European who trusted himself among this motley community, made up for the most part of not very promising moral elements, and he was surprised to find how they all lived quietly together, public opinion supplying the place of law and magistrate to keep the peace, without which trade could not be carried on. Sly cheating was looked on as rather admirable than otherwise; but when a man was caught in open stealing, he had publicly to experience one of the rattan cane's many uses, not altogether unknown to younger citizens of the West. It was his years' long experience of such slightly-organized society that set this distinguished naturalist upon questioning some of the advantages of our civilization.

Once across "Wallace's Line", we find no definite boundary for Asia, which might be held to end inconspicuously at the straits between Bali and Lombok.

[1] These valuable birds are not large of body, but have the most extraordinary development of coloured and lustrous plumage in tufts, trains, ruffs, shields, and other excrescences, sometimes sprouting at the end of long wire-like shafts. As in the case of other feathered dandies, it is the male birds that monopolize this magnificence, the female ones being of a quiet brown with slight markings. The full plumage is not acquired by the male for some years; and at least once a year the feathers go out of season by moulting, coming to their best in the breeding-time. "The birds had now commenced what the people here call their 'sacaleli', or dancing-parties, in certain trees in the forest, which are not fruit-trees as I at first imagined, but which have an immense head of spreading branches and large but scattered leaves, giving a clear space for the birds to play and exhibit their plumes. On one of these trees a dozen or twenty full-plumaged male birds assemble together, raise up their wings, stretch out their necks, and elevate their exquisite plumes, keeping them in a continual vibration. Between whiles they fly across from branch to branch in great excitement, so that the whole tree is filled with waving plumes in every variety of attitude and motion. The bird itself is nearly as large as a crow, and is of a rich coffee-brown colour. The head and neck is of a pure straw-yellow above, and rich metallic-green beneath. The long plumy tufts of golden-orange feathers spring from the sides beneath each wing, and when the bird is in repose are partly concealed by them. At the time of its excitement, however, the wings are raised vertically over the back, the head is bent down and stretched out, and the long plumes are raised up and expanded till they form two magnificent golden fans, striped with deep red at the base, and fading off into the pale brown tint of the finely-divided and softly-waving points. The whole bird is then overshadowed by them, the crouching body, yellow head, and emerald-green throat forming but the foundation and setting to the golden glory which waves above."—Wallace's *Malay Archipelago*, vol. ii, p. 253. (We have used this distinguished writer's name somewhat cavalierly; but who thinks of quoting *Dr.* Darwin?)

The Aru Islands are a separated fragment of New Guinea; but if we enter upon its mainland we shall be drawn on to Australia and the archipelagoes of the Pacific, with both of which it has closer relations than with Malaysia. Here, then, let us break off this division of our survey, turning back into the middle of Asia, at the Indian north-west frontier.

Banyan, Buitenzorg (see page 57)
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AFGHANISTAN AND BELOOCHISTAN

AFGHANISTAN

Afghanistan has been well called a "quick-set hedge between Russia and India", on which, indeed, one of the parties concerned has come by sore pricks. It is mainly a labyrinth of high stony table-lands, bristling with peaks and ridges, hollowed also by green valleys and ravines, often of extraordinary fertility. Across it the Hindoo Koosh range runs south-westward from the Pamirs, rising here and there into summits not much short of 25,000 feet, forming a colossal amphitheatre above Kabul, then from its central point, the Koh-i-Baba ("Father of Mountains"), splitting up into three chains that take much the same direction. The long lateral spurs of this range, the ancient Paropamisus or "Indian Caucasus", spread over more than half the country. On the east, towards the Indus plains, runs the Suliman range, on whose highest point, "Solomon's Throne", Moslem legend places the resting of Noah's Ark, behind which other mountain masses roughen this side of Afghanistan and Beloochistan. Between the branches of these two mountain systems the south-west of Afghanistan sinks into a great sandy desert such as covers the larger part of Beloochistan. To this corner flows the Helmand, the largest of Afghan rivers, that, after distributing its mountain waters over a fertilized plain, takes an erratic course through the desert into a lake overflowing as the vast Seistan or Hamun swamp on the Persian frontier. The northern drainage of the Hindoo Koosh is into the Oxus, or by the independent streams which we have seen losing themselves in the wastes of Turkestan. Such is the fate of the Herat River, at first flowing westward between the broken chains of the Hindoo Koosh. The Kabul River and other smaller streams fall eastward into the Indus, through wild gorges that have so often poured plundering hosts on to the rich plains of Hindostan.

The climate, as has so often to be said of Asian uplands, is on the whole a dry one, with extremes of heat and cold. Many of the inhabited parts, standing higher than any British mountain, have months of frost and snow, by which some of the mountain-tops are always whitened. The Afghan winter made a terrible ordeal for our poor people flying for their lives towards the Khyber Pass in that fatal retreat of 1842. In summer the sun burns so fiercely that eggs can be cooked in glowing desert sands, where the thermometer may mark 175° F., and violent winds raise stifling dust-storms. Winter snows and rains are to be looked for till March; then the scorching heat comes on so fast that by May, in favoured spots, crops are ripening, and fruit begins to drop upon rose-bushes showing a mass of bloom, while on the colder heights above people may be seen preparing to plant their fields. Sometimes brownly clad by parched shrubs

such as asafœtida, a kind of fennel whose juice makes a strong-smelling drug for Europe but a condiment for the country people, the barren mountains hide nooks in which flourish luxuriant melons, grapes, mulberries, apricots, pomegranates, apples, pears, almonds, and other nuts. Dried fruit and wool are the chief exports to neighbouring countries. On some of the moister slopes there are thick forests, and the river courses wind through copses of tamarisk, willow, and mimosa; but on the whole the country is poor in timber. The fertilized plains bear heavy crops of various grain and fodder, often cut down three or

Photo. Burke, Lahore.

Shamshere Bridge on Kabul River

four times in the course of the season. Cotton, sugar, tobacco, and indigo can be grown in the warmer parts. This culture, of course, depends on economy of the rapid streams by irrigating channels, and on the peculiar *karez* system of tapping springs under a slope and bringing them out by tunnels beneath the parched surface.

The herds of the Afghans are chiefly sheep and goats, whose wool makes the shawls and rugs known abroad, or is half-woven, half-felted into the coarse brown cloth of the national winter dress, in summer supplied by dirty linen or cotton. Their cattle are of inferior breed, and the same may be said of their horses in general, though many of a better class are reared for exportation to Persia and India. Camels are used on the plains, and some elephants have been introduced for the Government service. Asses, both wild and tame, are at home in the mountains, where small lions, leopards, wolves, and bears may be met, as well as wild sheep, jackals, gazelles, and foxes. In Beloochistan the tiger is not

unknown. In the north there is a breed of ferocious dogs which, kept by the suspicious herdsmen, are almost as formidable to strangers as when running wild in packs. The mountains nurse many ravenous birds, and others, among them our familiar cuckoo. Then Afghanistan has its share of venomous reptiles, and of the winged and stinged plagues that torment Oriental life.

The inhabitants are a very mixed body, including Usbegs in the north, and other Tartar peoples, such as the Hazarahs, half-bred Aryans like the Tajiks, settlers of Indian origin in the towns, the pagan "Kafirs" in the north-east, and bands of Jats, or gypsies, who wander over Persia also, selling sieves and mats or playing the potter and tinker. The dominant, if not most numerous race, of Afghans, often known in India as Pathans, are fanatically Moslem in faith, and of a fiercely warlike character that gives them mastery over milder elements of the population. There is much question as to the antecedents of this people, for whom, as for so many others, an ancestry has been found in the Jews; and one tribe, to whom the name properly belongs, is said to claim descent from Afghana, a son of Jeremiah. Features of what we know as the Jewish type are often noticeable among these tribes. Other authorities give them an Aryan or an Arab origin; some ethnologists, indeed, have looked on this Afghan plateau as the original breeding-place of the race commonly called Caucasian. The name Afghan is loosely applied to all the hardy highlanders of this region, Duranis, Ghilzais, Pathans, &c., who have in common their Pushtoo language, haughtily rude manners, and suspicious hatred of strangers and infidels, but can hardly be said to form a nation, rather a jumble of clans and sub-clans constantly at feud with each other, jealous of their turbulent independence, and united only in spasms of resistance to a common enemy. Now and again something like national cohesion has been brought about under some strong personality that could more or less completely gain the allegiance of the most powerful tribes and their *sirdars*, or chiefs; then the death or dethronement of such a ruler has thrown them afresh into lawless ferment. The modern state of Afghanistan began to take its varying shape in the eighteenth century, built up by the chief Ahmad Shah among the ruins of Nadir Shah's Persian empire.

Our Indian Empire has a natural interest in the firm government of this neighbour, so more than once we have interfered, not always wisely, in disputes for its uneasy throne. In the early years of Queen Victoria's reign the first Afghan war left its painful memories. A British army marched to Kandahar and Kabul, re-established a former amir against the usurper, Dost Mahomed, and for three years held possession of the capital. But Dost Mahomed proved more of a man than our puppet prince; the Afghans, resenting foreign interference, rallied round that bold pretender; and though he surrendered to us, this seemed only to inflame the popular insurrection. Our political officers were murdered at Kabul, where our troops found themselves cooped up in weak cantonments, hampered by a helpless host of women, children, and camp-followers, the sepoys, who formed a large part of the force, unmanned by the cold of Afghan uplands. Some of the leaders, too, seem to have lost heart and head. At the beginning of 1842 the army set out on its disastrous retreat towards the Indian plains, through frozen passes swarming with vindictive foes. A treaty had been entered into with the chiefs, who could not or would not restrain their ferocious countrymen. Soon every stage of the miserable retreat became a massacre. The ladies, children, and married officers were surrendered to Akbar Khan, son of Dost Mahomed,

and, after trying vicissitudes, came at last into safety. The general and other officers had been added to this band of prisoners. The army and its train, a mob of fugitives, struggled on against hunger and cold and the constant attacks of tribesmen who lined the wild gorges on their blood-stained way. The native allies deserted to the enemy. Frost-bitten sepoys sank in despair on the snow. The Europeans, split up into straggling parties, fought vainly against hopeless odds. Those who escaped slaughter were starved in the snow. A single survivor, Dr. Brydon, rode up to Jelalabad, held by General Sale, whose defence of this tumble-down fortress made the one bright spot in a disastrous history. The rest had left

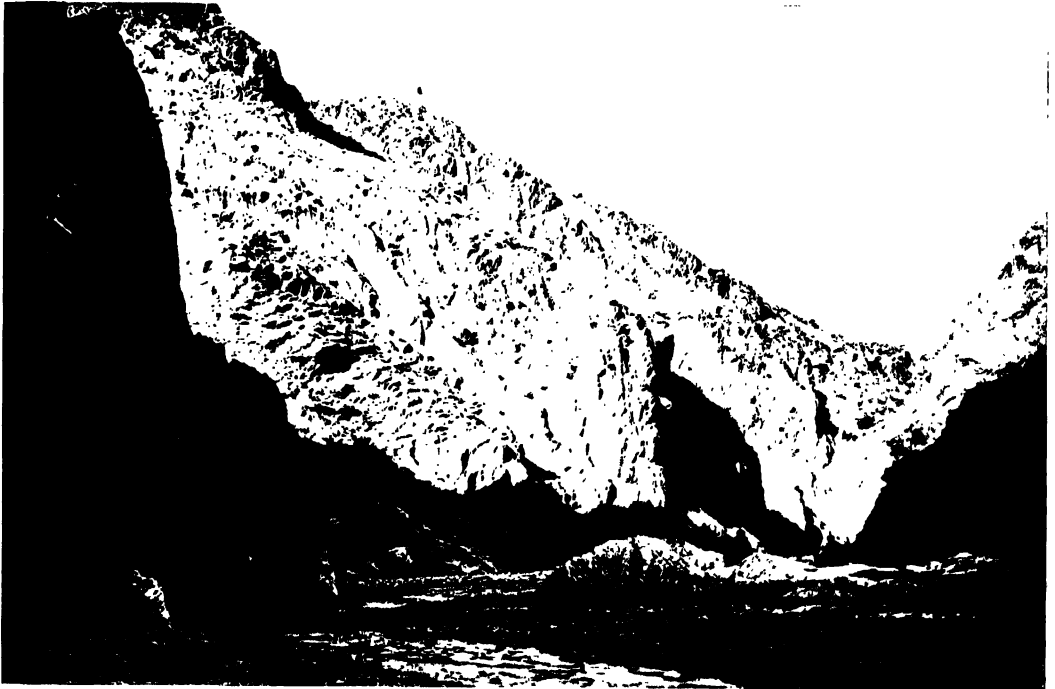



Photo. Burke, Lahore

Western End of the Jagdalak Defile on the Road from Jelalabad to Kabul

their bones in the passes, retraced by an army under General Pollock, which took bootless revenge on Kabul and recovered the captives, but was content to withdraw, leaving Dost Mahomed in possession of Afghanistan, after so much bloodshed wasted in an ill-managed and short-sighted effort to keep him out of it.

For a generation now Britain was glad to leave this formidable country to itself; then again we became drawn into its troubled politics. Dost Mahomed's son, Shere Ali, was understood to be intriguing with Russia, whose advances in Central Asia seemed to threaten our Indian Empire. As a counterpoise to Russian diplomacy, we insisted on having a resident envoy at Kabul. This demand was at first refused, but in 1878 a military demonstration overawed the Afghans, when they found that no help was to be had from Russia. Shere Ali died, succeeded by his son, Yakoub Khan, who received Sir Louis Cavagnari as the English Resident. But, as so often has been the case, the fierce populace proved harder to reckon with than their rulers. Cavagnari and other members of the mission were massacred at Kabul. Then followed that war in which Lord Roberts rose to fame, one not without glory for our arms, yet with some anxious

moments and heavy losses. In 1880 we withdrew, having placed on the throne a grandson of Dost Mahomed, Abdur Rahman, whose career had hitherto been schooled by trying experiences of banishment and pretendership.

This prince came to power somewhat fortuitously, in the absence of a better candidate, but our king-making in Afghanistan turned out for once a fortunate experiment. Abdur Rahman proved the man to bind together in a more homogeneous state what had been a "bundle of provinces". By a mixture of ruthless despotism and wily prudence he in time made himself undisputed master of the whole country, to whose interests he devoted no small ability. Though owing much to the politic generosity of the Russians, among whom he had spent years of exile, he behaved honourably to Britain, carrying out the intention that his dominion should be a barrier between these two rival powers. As soon as he felt firm in his seat, he set about improving the condition of a backward people by putting the finances in order, by creating or reforming courts of justice, by constructing roads and freeing them from robbery, and by developing commerce and industry. In the interesting autobiography published by him, he enumerates, among the arts recently introduced: mining in various forms, electrical and other engineering, the construction of traction-engines, steam-hammers, and telephones, coining rupees, distilling, boot-making, the manufacture of soap and candles, the study of medicine, surgery, and dentistry. One means of civilization he frankly confesses to neglecting. He had no money to spare for making railways in such a difficult country, where they might serve to aid invaders; and he had almost quarrelled with us for bringing a line to his frontier. His main effort was to form a regular army that might make Afghanistan an impregnable stronghold, hitherto best defended by the fitful rage of fanatical tribesmen, who rushed to death with blind devotion, but quickly dispersed at the least check, or in the dissensions following victory. Strong fortifications, armed with modern ordnance, have been erected at the chief strategic points; factories and foundries turn out cannon, rifles, and ammunition; and great quantities of military stores have been accumulated for the use of an army believed to number from 40,000 to 60,000, which its master found more difficulty in subjecting to military discipline on British models. In these improvements, directed to a great extent by his own intelligence, the amir freely used the services of European artificers, treated honourably and considerately; but his aim was to become independent of foreign help, and, while fulfilling engagements entered into with Britain as chief patron, in return for an annual subsidy, he clearly let it be understood that "Afghanistan for the Afghans" was the motto of his policy. That he carried the people along with him in his use of authority was shown by the unopposed succession of his son in 1902, when it was feared that the death of Abdur Rahman would have brought about a general commotion that might have spread beyond Afghanistan. One side of the father's character is illustrated by the fact that he had married his heir to some half-dozen wives chosen from the families of the chief military and religious personages in the country. The present amir, Habibullah, is also understood to have had a careful training in the duties of his difficult dignity.

The dominion thus inherited is about 300,000 square miles, with a population of perhaps five millions. It mainly consists of three provinces, belonging to Kabul, Kandahar, and Herat, which have at different times been centres of independent government. These are the only places that can be called cities; and there are besides only some half-dozen considerable towns. Others are no more

than fortified villages, dwellings enclosed within a square of mud walls and towers, often adjoined by the ruins of once important places whose very names are sometimes unknown. The whole country is dotted by such ruins that, with gigantic cliff sculptures and excavations in the rock, make monuments of a forgotten past. The very land may be found ruined by the neglect of its life-giving water-courses, and this on the potentially richest spots which most surely tempt lawless neighbours. A beautiful valley, dotted by groves and fields, so as to seem an abode of smiling peace, has been found so distracted by blood-feuds

Photo. Bourne & Shepherd

Caravan in the Khyber Pass

that the inhabitants scarcely durst stir a few hundred yards from their fortified dwellings.

To the destructive force of conquest and aggression must be added that of frequent earthquakes, commonly slight, but sometimes violent enough to throw down the already dilapidated walls of an Afghan fort. Mountain storms, too, often rise to convulsions of nature, working serious damage by floods and landslips. The arbitrary whim of chiefs has been another cause for desertion of towns and shifting of population. "The Afghans", says M. Ferrier, "have become so used to sudden and forced displacements that they never attach themselves to the soil; their tent is their country. In two days a family will build themselves a good house of earth, roofed, with the door only made of wood; and the facility with which they do this explains, as I have already said, how so many towns appear and disappear without leaving a trace behind them, and how others, of which the existence is not suspected, are suddenly mentioned by successive travellers."

The roads and gateways of this rugged land are the gorges leading through its jagged mountain chains, the most famous of them the gloomy Khyber Pass, opening above Peshawar, that has once and again been a highway of conquest. Its barren sides are garrisoned by wild Afridi tribesmen who hold it their birthright to take toll of unprotected travellers, but have a keen enough eye for business to accept payment from the British Government for keeping open the pass, while their fiercest spirits are being won to loyalty in the ranks of our native army. To Jamrud, at the mouth of the pass, the railway has been pushed

Timur Shah's Mosque, Kabul

Photo, Burke, Lahore

on from Peshawar. Beyond, access is jealously restricted by the Afghan Government; twice a week caravans traverse the pass, handed over from an Afghan to a British escort, or *vice versâ*; but private adventurers are likely to get into trouble across the frontier, which is drawn 30 miles above Peshawar, the road so far being on neutral ground, under our control. By this road it is about 150 miles to Kabul, which may also be reached from India by the easier Kuram Pass to the south. Within the barrier pierced by the Khyber comes a slightly elevated plain, on an eminence of which stands Jelalabad, an old fortress town of two or three thousand people, where the amir has built himself a fine new palace. Beyond there is more than one way through the mountains to the rich and populous plain stretching before the capital of Afghanistan.

Kabul, some 6000 feet above the sea, has a healthy climate, naturally severe in winter, but refreshed in summer by breezes from snow-clad mountains. The population is put as 75,000. The city itself, built of bricks and wood, is not very striking unless by its situation at the foot of ruggedly bold peaks and

on the wooded banks of its river. Nor are its narrow streets, shut in by almost windowless walls, improved in picturesqueness by a partial adoption of European dress that was encouraged under the late amir. Some few of the houses built since his reign gave security are more handsome and comfortable than the older dwellings, thus described by Dr. J. A. Gray, one of the European medical attendants brought here by Abdur Rahman, who suffered from gout like any alderman. "Few of the streets, except the bazaars, can be called in any sense thoroughfares. They wind and twist about most irregularly, sometimes open to the sky, sometimes covered in by rooms belonging to the adjacent houses, and they usually end abruptly at the closed door of a house or garden. . . . You dismount at a door, and stumble into a dark winding passage with your head bent to avoid an irregular beam, and you go slowly for fear of puddles and holes which you cannot see. You come into the open, and find yourself in a garden with flowers and trees, and a tank or pond in the middle, or in a small court-yard with simply a well. The house is built round the garden or yard, and consists of a series of rooms opening by doors into one another, and with the windows all looking into the garden." On one of the background heights rise the walls and towers of the Bala Hissar, a citadel containing the amir's palace. On another is the gardened tomb of Tamerlane's grandson, Baber, the first Grand Mogul, who from Kabul set forth to a more brilliant seat in India. Outside the city also are the fortified cantonments in which more than once our troops, while dominating Kabul, have been practically besieged by swarms of hillmen.[1]

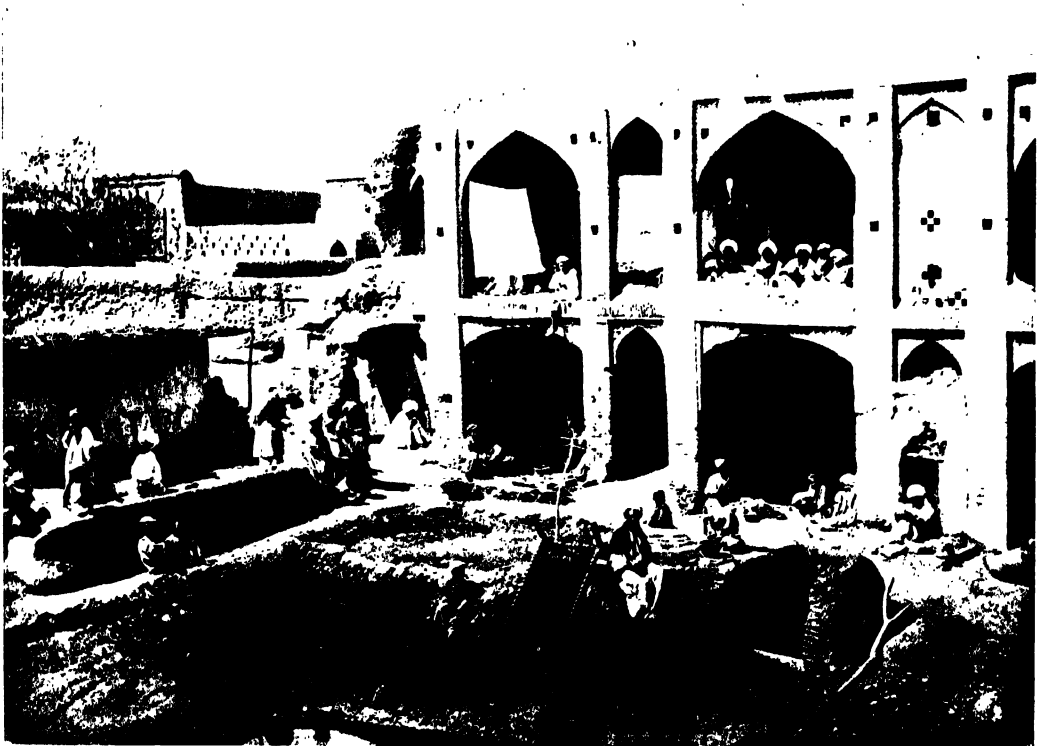
From Kabul it is more than 300 miles southwards to Kandahar. The road leads by the lofty city of Ghuzni, perched upon the mountains like an eagle's nest, from which swooped forth Mahmud, the first Moslem conqueror of India. Once the capital of this region, it has now decayed to a place of almost 10,000 people. The old city lies in ruins, with the noble mosques, baths, bazaars, and palaces built by Mahmud, whose tomb has been preserved, but its famous gates, believed erroneously to be those of the temple of Somnath, were brought back to India among the few trophies of the first Afghan war. Other tombs of Moslem saints make this a place of pilgrimage, where Afghan hatred has keenly whetted itself against the invading infidel.

Kandahar, farther south and not so high above the sea as Kabul, has a warmer climate, sometimes made oppressive by continued dust-storms from the adjacent deserts. This also lies on a plain at the foot of striking heights, between two tributaries of the Helmand River. The old city was some little way off; the new one, built by Nadir Shah, is regularly divided into quarters, four streets leading to a central market-place in which are displayed the wares of East and West—cottons from Manchester, cutlery from Sheffield, silks from Bokhara, carpets from Persia, beside sheepskin cloaks, camel and horse harness,

[1] In the Bamian Pass through the mountains north of Kabul, near the ruined citadel of Gulguleh, a cliff has been excavated into hundreds of caves in irregular stories, among which the rock is sculptured with two gigantic figures, male and female, respectively 170 and 120 feet high, covered with a representation of thin drapery; a smaller effigy, about 80 feet, is understood to represent the child of these personages, dimly identified in an extinct race of sovereigns. Each of them stands cut out in a deep recess, which Vincent Eyre found painted with figures and emblematic devices. There are openings at the head and feet through which, by galleries and staircases cut in the rock, he ascended to the top of the female figure for a splendid view. These amazing images, much defaced by cannon shot, and apparently restored or repaired in part, must be of very ancient origin; they have been connected with vague memories of a city founded here by Alexander the Great. On a mountain crest to the other side of Kabul, Eyre describes also a Doric column, 70 feet high, known as Alexander's Pillar; but we do not find this mentioned by later visitors.

copper cooking-vessels, sweetmeats, flat wheaten cakes, kabobs frying on little charcoal stoves, and the fruits and vegetables that grow so luxuriantly in the environs. Silks and felts make the chief local manufacture. The principal buildings are the citadel and the tomb of Ahmad Shah, whose capital this was. It is now the second city of Afghanistan, and one of its chief seats of industry. Hence a good road to India is by the Bolan Pass and the British station of Quetta, to and beyond which a railway has been made from the Indus, that may before long be pushed on to Kandahar.

From Kandahar, round the central mountain mass, goes a road to Herat, which lies due west of Kabul, but is not so easily accessible by more direct

Photo. Bourne & Shepherd

In the Streets of Kandahar

ways through wild passes and wild people, as poor M. Ferrier found when he tried to make this journey. The blooming valley of Herat, filled with villages, gardens, and woods along the course of its river, hemmed in by sterile mountains, has been enthusiastically called the Garden and Granary of Asia; and the city itself is an important centre of trade, as the meeting-place of roads from Persia, Turkestan, and India. It is nearly a mile square within the fortifications so often demolished and rebuilt that their very ruin has formed an enormous mound, over which towers the dilapidated citadel. For miles outside the present enclosure extend the imposing ruins of Herat's former magnificence, when it was the seat of Hussein, a descendant of Timour, who in the end of the fifteenth century made himself renowned as a patron of science and art. It was then the chief market of this region; but its importance dwindled under the sufferings of attack from both sides—at one time conquered by Persia, at another

plundered and oppressed by the ruthless Afghans. In 1837 it underwent the famous Persian siege, in which it held its independence; but under Dost Mahomed it became part of Afghanistan, though naturally belonging rather to the Khorassan province of Persia. It is believed to be now coveted by Russia, which has a railway pushed up to Kushk, not far to the north of Herat. Of late its commerce seems to have revived, and the population is put at 50,000.

The three provinces of these historic cities, Kabul, Kandahar, Herat, form what may be called Afghanistan Proper. Since this country became consolidated as something of a military power, it has taken to conquering like its great neighbours, always with a care not to poach on their preserves; and it now includes a dependent northern province under the name of Afghan Turkestan, stretching from the Hindoo Koosh to the Oxus river. This is made up of several feeble khanates, inhabited mainly by Usbeg Tartars, who, despised and bullied by their Afghan masters, in the barren mountains live by flocks, and cultivate richer ground on the often marshy river plains. In ancient time, when here flourished the Greek kingdom of Bactria, several noted towns stood on the roads from Afghanistan to Bokhara and Samarcand, but these have mostly fallen into decay. The principal one up to a generation ago was Balkh, "Mother of Cities", near which the ruins of the ancient metropolis, flourishing before Alexander's conquest, now cover the ground for miles. Balkh having been depopulated by cholera, the seat of government was moved a little way off to Mazar-i-Shereef, which, by last accounts, had some 25,000 people gathered round its famous Moslem shrine. This is centrally situated towards the northern border of the province. East of it the modern town of Tashkurgan has replaced Old Kulm on the Kulm river, by which there is a trade route from Kabul into Central Asia. West of Mazar, Andkhui, on the edge of the Merv deserts, is a considerable town though notoriously hot and unhealthy. Southwestward, Maimana, where join the roads from Kabul and Herat, is said to be recovering its former prosperity, ruined by warfare and by raids of the Tekke Turcomans, through fear of whom large stretches of fertile land fell out of cultivation, where nothing but constant industry keeps the desert from sweeping in its tide of sand. Perhaps as having had to defend themselves against such inveterate foes, the people of Maimana seem to be more martial than their neighbours; and Abdur Rahman found them harder to subjugate. The eastern end of the province approaches the Pamirs by Badakshan, a mountainous region rich in minerals, notably rubies and the *lapis lazuli*, which latter stone is said to take its name from a district here.

On the southern side the desert border of Kandahar merges with Beloochistan along a recently better defined frontier line.

BELOOCHISTAN

Of this country, long commonly spelt Beloochistan, but transformed into Baluchistan by the Indian official spelling, little was known before its being taken under the charge of our Indian empire. Its inhospitable soil and bloodthirsty people are not attractive to travellers, while its position has not made it important

on military considerations, unless as a forbidding barrier in whose wastes Alexander the Great left many of the soldiers he led back from the Indus. Rather more than half as large as all the Afghan territory, it has the same general characteristics, except as to a greater want of water. A larger part of the surface seems to be covered by sandy wastes, like that Seistan desert by which the northwest corner of Beloochistan merges with Afghanistan and Persia. The rest is raised in stony mountain ranges, which intercept the rain-clouds from the Arabian Sea. When they do not lose themselves in salt swamps, most of the few and unimportant river-courses, dry throughout a great part of the year, run to the south coast-land called Makran, that puts in a claim to the distinction of having the hottest Asian climate. On this coast, it is said, for hundreds of miles only a single stunted tree appears as a landmark for sailors. The interior deserts are also a fearsome region, all the more so for their heat-radiating rocks and their loose sands constantly stirred up by the furnace winds of summer. In winter, on the mountains, the cold is often intense; and on the plains unlucky travellers may have snow, hail, and sand in turn blown into their faces by the icy blasts. Here and there are rich cultivated valleys, and gardens may be made to bloom "like a bunch of sweet-scented flowers in a fever ward"; but most of the inhabitants are a pastoral people, who readily turn their hands to fleecing their fellowmen, *marte aut arte*, neither fighting nor thieving coming amiss to them. The hardly explored mountains are believed to contain iron and copper; here and there they exhibit mud volcanoes and beds of sulphur that makes one of the few articles of commerce yielded by this poor land, whose productions differ little from those of Afghanistan. The date-palm appears in the south, where the Makran coast of the Arabian Sea abounds in fish that are the chief food of its people.

The affix *istan*, so often met in this part of the world—of which a descendant is found in the latter syllables of Brit*annia*,—means country or region; and here its qualification seems unjustly come by. The oldest and most numerous inhabitants of Beloochistan are the Brahuis, a race of doubtful origin, perhaps Mongols, among whom have intruded the Beloochis, apparently akin to the Aryan Persians. Some few hundred thousand in all, the Brahuis prevailing on the north side, they live in unfriendly neighbourhood, both of them admirable as hardy animals, but scarcely so in other respects. They are much alike in customs and want of manners, their religion being a coarse Mohammedanism, but the Beloochis derive from the Shiah sect predominant in Persia, while the Brahuis are Sunnites, which helps to keep them apart. The Beloochis are said to be tall, with long faces and prominent features, whereas the other tribes have the short stature and flat faces of a Tartar race.[1]

[1] "The Beloochees are ardent, impulsive, well-formed, and nervous; their complexion is olive, like that of the Arab, and these two races have more than one analogous point between them. Their features express astuteness and ferocity, they are insensible to privations, and support them and fatigue in the most admirable manner; no matter how painful and long the journey may be, they are always ready for the march. A Persian and Afghan travel at night to avoid the great heats; the Beloochee, on the contrary, is not only not afraid of them, but seeks that which these nations as much as possible avoid; they march only between sunrise and sunset, and before or after will never move a yard; if the great luminary disappears before they have arrived at their intended halt, they encamp on the spot they happen to be at at the time. Their most extraordinary physical characteristic is the facility with which, camel-like, they can for so long a time go without drink in their burning country—a draught of water once in the twenty-four hours is sufficient for them, even on a journey; they have also a particular instinct for ascertaining the spot at which water is nearest the surface of the soil, and they rarely dig further than 3 feet without coming to it.

"They march with a rapidity which it is impossible to conceive, and will walk faster than the best horse; there are instances amongst them of men who will tire out three horses, one after another, in this manner. They eat very

Country is hardly the name for this home of quarrelsome, fierce, and semi-independent tribes, among whom even villages are rare. With more or less willingness they recognize the supremacy of the Khan of Kelat, a town of some thousands of people, whose mud houses rise in terraces up to its towering citadel, perched loftily in the mountainous north-west country, where its lord has a winter residence in the less ungenial Gundava, not far away. This potentate has seen well, in turn, to submit himself to the Indian Empire; and part of his territory is now permanently occupied by our military station Quetta, guarding the southern pass into Afghanistan, whence the long Khojak tunnel carries a railway on to the plain of Kandahar, over which it could soon be extended. A branch line penetrates Beloochistan as far as Nushki, first stage of a caravan route to Seistan; and telegraph wires now run across the desert from Quetta to the Persian border.

The only other places that can be called towns are Kej or Kulatak in the south-west corner, and Bela in the south-east, near which a remarkable ravine has been excavated by many hundreds of cave dwellings recalling those seen in the Mexican region of America. To the south of Bela a gathering of mud huts in Sonmiani Bay is the chief landing-place on the coast "wilderness of rock and scrub". Mr. De Windt, when he took an adventurous ride hence to Kelat, over some 400 miles of sand plains and slippery ridges bristling with needle-like points, tells us that on the tracks that serve for roads he passed through only half a dozen places worth calling villages, besides Bela and Kelat, and, except their scowling inhabitants, fell in with a dozen human beings at the most. On the west side these sparsely settled tribes extend into country over which Persia has been extending a doubtful dominion. Sir A. H. MacMahon, who in 1896 drew a boundary line between Afghanistan and Beloochistan, has lately been engaged in settling a frontier on the Persian side. But this latter country is so little worth quarrelling about, that a native proverb declares: "When God created the world, Beloochistan was made out of the refuse".

little, and believe most implicitly in auguries; the cry of a wild beast, the sight of a serpent, a bird on the wing, a flight of birds, or a troop of wild asses which separates into two divisions, is sufficient to stop them short suddenly in the midst of their journey. They will never leave the place they are in before the sun, under which they were warned by this augury, has set and risen again; this delay is to allow Fate time to alter her intentions, should they happen to be adverse. When their opportunity for pillage arrives their activity is amazing, their plans are undertaken and executed with great promptitude and courage, and wonderful address; life is as nothing to them, and they will expose it for the least trifle. They know so thoroughly how strong is their predilection for thieving, how inveterate the habit, that two friends, two brothers, aye, even a father and a son, travelling together, will take good care not to sleep close to one another. When the time for rest arrives, one will point out to the other a spot one hundred yards off where he had better sleep, and they both swear by Peer-kisri not to approach each other until the hour of departure. They have a remarkably quick sense of hearing, and the least noise or movement made by one will be sure to awake the other."—Ferrier's *Caravan Journeys*.

PERSIA

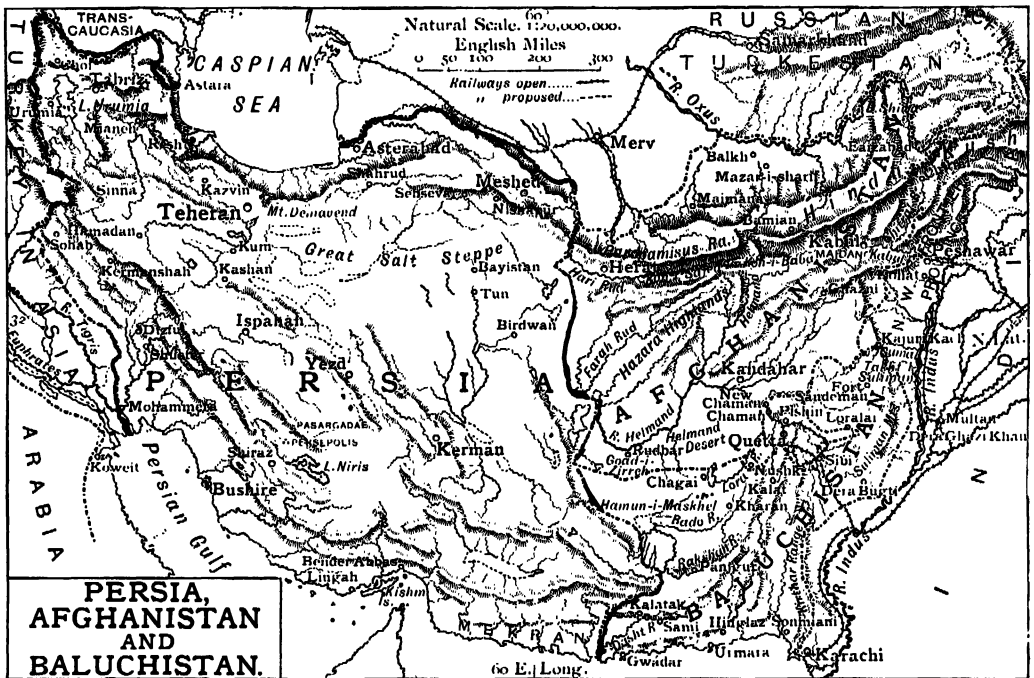
IRAN AND ITS PEOPLE

"How are the mighty fallen!" is the first thought that rises in considering the present state of Persia, known rather to its own people by the ancient name Iran. Cyrus, Cambyses, Darius, Xerxes are names at which once "the world grew pale". Many a moral has been pointed, many a tale adorned from the imposing throne filled in turn by Seleucidæ and Sassanidæ, by Seljuks and Sufis. Sapor the Great, Chosroes, Caliph Omar, Alp Arslan glimmer through our misty knowledge of the dark ages. In mediæval times this was the arena of resounding but futile conquests by Genghiz Khan and Tamerlane. Not even Macaulay's schoolboy could go over all the usurpers and dynasties that have here played their part in Asian history; but the general reader vaguely remembers how, in our own Georgian days, the Persian sceptre had a gleam of its old glory under Nadir Shah, last of the Asiatic Napoleons. Perhaps Europe's clearest glimpse into its modern history was the object-lesson of visits from that late shah, with his diamonds and gold spectacles, a gaping-stock for crowds, hardly aware how his title "king of kings" had once been no empty boast. Now this famous land, tyrant-ridden and poverty-stricken, has dwindled into a helpless dominion, upheld less by its own strength than by the watchful jealousies of great modern powers for whom it becomes a battle-ground of commerce.

The boundaries of the Persian Empire have shrunk and swollen with the vicissitudes of its history. Originally the people that gave it a name occupied but the southern part of modern Persia, bordering the Persian Gulf. Geographically it consists of the great Iranian plateau, extending northwards from this gulf to the Caspian Sea, between the basins of the Indus and the Tigris, east and west. From this area Afghanistan and most of Beloochistan have been cut off, leaving the rest of the plateau as the political extent of modern Persia, in shape a very rough curvilinear triangle of about 1000 miles along its base and 700 miles at its sides, enclosing some 630,000 square miles, divided into over 30 provinces, with possibly between 9 and 10 millions of inhabitants, though, as in most Eastern countries, this is a very doubtful estimate. The frequent sight of half-ruined cities, deserted villages, and abandoned fields suggests that the population has decreased, as the natural result of wars in the past, of misgovernment up to the present time, and of ruinous famines such as occurred more than once in the last century.

This table-land, with a general elevation of several thousand feet above the sea, is laced by mountain ranges that diversify a great part of the surface. In the north, the boundary wall of Khorassan and the lofty Elburz chain,

running below the south side of the Caspian Sea, continue the line of the Hindu Kush. Along the base of the triangle stretch rows of giant ridges in an oblique direction from north-west to south-east, rising here and there into peaks whose exact height is still uncertain, but some of them surpass any European mountain. In the south-east corner is another group of mountains that run over into Beloochistan, and straggle inland along its frontier to meet ridges curving round from Khorassan in the north. Thus Persia is enclosed by a broad rim of heights, whose watered valleys are the richest spots of the country. On the great plains within, usually a miniature of the same conformation, cultivation struggles in strips wherever water comes or can be brought by canals and the subterranean conduits called *karez* or *kanats*, whose

PERSIA, AFGHANISTAN AND BALUCHISTAN.

open shafts are often seen dotting the landscape like huge ant-hills, and their mouths tunnelling the hill-sides. Much of the surface, however, is desert in different degrees of barrenness. Sometimes the arid soil will be more or less poorly clad by such plants as rhubarb, wormwood, asafœtida, wild rue, and prickly bushes, but in glens of the stony ridges are hidden away villages, whose herds, when the mountain valley grass fails, can find some pasture on the plain. Elsewhere even the driest vegetation becomes almost lost in wastes of sand that always tend to encroach on what man has won from the wilderness. Large stretches are blighted by salt so as to form the saline marshes and deserts known here as *kavirs* or *kafehs*, which cover much of the surface of Persia. Farther east, in Afghanistan, and in the plains of the Punjab, the ground is often seen whitened by saline efflorescence; but Persia has extensive depressions caked by salt to a thickness of several feet, into which trickle briny streams, gathering in ice-like pools upon what seems a sheet of snow deposited by the evaporating water. In some parts the supply of water is still enough to fill these hollows with shallow lakes, the largest of them Lake Urumia (or Urumieh)

in the north-west corner. Sometimes the desert takes the form of black mud, blistered into treacherous bubbles and pitted with holes or pools of green slime. Again the waste is simply a stony plain, as naked as the slopes that overshadow it; or an expanse of loose friable soil that bears nothing but mud or dust according to the season.

What has been said of the climate of Afghanistan applies to Persia, whose elevated plains and lofty mountains suffer extremes of temperature, with dryness as the main condition. Most of the rainfall pours off the outer mountain slopes; and the interior has only a few inches annual supply. This and the snow reservoirs of the loftier ranges are drained down in short streams that for the most part lose themselves in that thirsty interior, often dribbled away in irrigation before their water grows so salt as to be a curse rather than a blessing to the land. Of those flowing into the Arabian Gulf only the Karun, an affluent of the Euphrates Delta, is navigable. In the north the most considerable stream is the Safid-Rud (White River), falling into the Caspian Sea, whither also flow the Aras and the Atrek, bordering Persia towards the Russian Transcaucasian and Transcaspian provinces respectively. The flowery valleys and shady groves, sung so loudly by Persian poets, appear the more lovely in contrast with the general sterility, where all culture depends on happy accident of situation or careful management of the streams and wells, whose possession and distribution has in all times been such a fruitful source of quarrel among Eastern communities.

So rich, indeed, are some spots that they yield a manifold return for no watering but from dew and occasional storms; but the oases here are usually mountain valleys and river plains, where almost every mud-built village has a setting of walled vineyards and gardens. Forests are rare and stunted, except on the moister slopes of the northern mountains, thickly wooded by valuable timber—oak, beech, elm, walnuts, cedars, and box trees,—while the southern sides of these mountains will be found dotted only by a few junipers. The principal crops are much the same as in other Asian countries where we have found similar conditions of soil and climate: corn on the higher ground, rice, cotton, tobacco, sugar-cane, and so forth on the lowlands. Barley appears to be the commonest grain. On the southern coast the date-palm grows; oranges come to perfection in some parts, as does the olive; and all over Persia there are spots bearing grapes, figs, apricots, mulberries, pomegranates, almonds, pistachio-nuts, and almost every kind of European fruit, with some rare or unknown among us. Wine, raisins, and oil are notable products, and the syrups made from various fruits. Melons and cucumbers are much cultivated. When even the desert jungles blossom in their season with bulbous flowers and dog-roses, the rose-gardens of the cities have a right to figure so brightly in Persian poetry. Sir John Malcolm tells us how the English envoys were entertained to breakfast upon a mound of rose leaves as big as an English haystack, not heaped up altogether in idle compliment, for they were destined to be distilled into the essences for which certain districts have such a renown as blinds us to the general characteristics of a country whose life is far from being all rose-water.

The greater part of the land is more fit for pasturage than agriculture, and the chief wealth of its inhabitants is in their flocks of goats, sheep, and camels. The cow is not so much at home here, though there is one fine breed of black cattle in the north. Buffaloes as well as oxen are used for labour, but the

former require a damp soil for their wallowing. Horses are carefully bred, sturdy asses and mules also being much used. In the mountain districts especially, the herds have such formidable enemies as the maneless lion, the leopard, the wolf, and the bear, living among jackals, hyænas, gazelles, ibexes, wild goats, and asses. The birds include, among many of less amiable character, pheasants and the bulbul or eastern nightingale as well as, in the north, our own songster of that name and fame. Falconry is a favourite sport with the Persians, who run down hares, antelopes, and other fleet game with hawks and greyhounds trained to work together. Like the Chinese, they are fond of keeping singing-birds in cages. In some parts are seen circular towers as high as a church, pierced with holes for the lodging of thousands of pigeons. The stork is a frequent figure in this part of the world, bearing something of that sacred character that has accompanied him in Teutonic sympathies. Among friends of man, the Persian animal most familiar to us is the well-known cat whose lordly fur and haughty manners have been so much communicated to our humbler Western puss; but in his own country this feline aristocrat seems to be as exceptional as in England. To match him, an unusually large rat with a bushy tail is found burrowing the ground so as often to make it treacherous for horses. Among reptiles are brown snakes that have the trick of climbing a bush and remaining motionless for hours in deceptive mimicry of a dead branch. There is the usual Eastern profusion of poisonous pests, including a particularly huge and hideous hairy spider of the desert, in one district a venomous bug which attacks strangers by preference, in another a scorpion that is said to keep its ill-will for natives; and the dry sandy soil harbours a horny-legged tarantula that has a trick of dropping on one from ceilings. The country is often plagued by locust swarms, the noise of whose multitudinous jaws may be heard as they strip a blooming garden bare in a single night; but in return for their greedy devastations the people can sometimes shake sackfuls off the trees, to be boiled and eaten after being fattened at their expense. The rivers are as a rule ill-stocked with fish, except those falling into the Caspian, some of which abound in salmon and trout.

Persian Woman Spinning

The sheep are chiefly of the fat-tailed variety, the fleece of black lambs furnishing the national head-dress. The goats, kept in enormous herds, are commonly black, with long coarse hair, among the tangled masses of which grows a soft down that rivals that celebrated in Kashmere in the manufacture

of a choice fabric. Camels'-hair, closely woven with cotton, supplies another cloth for which Persia is noted. But its most famous textile productions are the soft smooth carpets and shawls of elaborate pattern and tasteful blending of colours which have made them a model to Europe, while we have vitiated Persian stuffs by the introduction of aniline dyes to replace the native vegetable pigments that grew only more beautiful with age. Soft felts, sometimes an inch thick, are also used as floor-covering. Silk is largely produced and cunningly woven, and the Persian ladies, having much time on their hands, are often mistresses of rich embroidery, though this art, too, is said to have deteriorated. In the country, peasant-women may be seen spinning with a small hand-wheel, or on a spindle as they walk along.

The most valuable mineral of Persia seems to be the salt with which its plains are only too much encrusted; and mines of rock-salt are worked in the hills. Its fame for precious stones is mainly a borrowed, not to say stolen one, as the shah's Aladdin-like treasure of diamonds and other gems, said to be worth millions, represent his forerunners' raids into richer lands, in particular Nadir Shah's sack of Delhi, when the renowned Koh-i-noor, that now adorns the British crown, fell to the share of his Afghan auxiliaries. Among Persia's own riches in this way the most notable are the turquoise mines in the north-east, this gem being almost peculiar to the country, the name, of course, taken from Turkey, through which turquoises first came into Europe. Pearls are found, as we know from the poets, in the Persian Gulf. Coal, iron, tin, lead, copper, and other minerals are not wanting, as is rather the enterprise to work them productively. Petroleum, bitumen, and sulphur are available in volcanic spots. In the precious metals Persia is poor; but her artisans are skilful in working gold and silver, and in inlaying them upon finely-tempered steel. Among their arts was a beautifully iridescent pottery, but this also has decayed in point of colouring, and the ware never was so firm and delicate as that of China which set them patterns. In brass-work, enamelling on copper, wood-carving, and painting on papier-maché articles, they still show the taste which once made them an artistic nation. More prosaic productions are hides, tobacco, opium, and indigo. The cultivation of sugar-cane has declined; and while the Persians are a very sweet-toothed people, they seem content to import sugar rather than make it for themselves out of the beet-root that thrives particularly in the north.

The chief imports of the country are tea, coffee, cotton goods, sugar, mineral oil, firearms, and European luxuries for which the late shahs set the fashion of demand. This trade is keenly contested by England and Russia, the former naturally having a predominance on the southern sea-coast, and the latter on the Caspian border. Of late, German activity in Asia Minor has shown signs of extension into Persia, where some Belgian capital is also employed. But the main factor in commercial development here is the rivalry between the two great European powers in Asia; and for long Russia seemed more able to bring the pressure of her power to bear on this backward neighbour. The French, who a century ago were well in the field for interference with Persian affairs, appear now to have dropped out of it, but a relic of their influence is the extent to which French may still be found spoken among the higher class.

Internal communications are not well developed, most of the roads being mere caravan tracks, though in some places improved under foreign influences. A few miles of rail have been made at Teheran, but there such enterprise stopped,

Russia seeing well to discourage the spread of railways till she could link them with her own ambitious undertakings of the kind. Telegraph communications, on the other hand, have been much extended since the great Indo-European line was constructed through Persia, whose capital is now connected by wire with the chief provincial cities, an accommodation that, as in China, strengthens the hands of the central government. General F. E. Gordon states that the quiet accession of a recent shah was materially due to the rapid manner in which it could be proclaimed over the country, cutting short the uncertainty that went to breed civil war. The telegraph has been also used with effect in appealing to the

Photo. W. H. Rau

Courtyard of a Persian Caravanserai

shah's protection against the oppression of his governors. Often for leagues along a sandy road there will be nothing to cast thicker shade than that of a telegraph-post, and no building in sight but the walled and towered caravanserai built by public spirited or pious princes for the repose of travellers, who, if Europeans, may sometimes find more pleasant lodging at the telegraph-stations. The caravanserai of the East, like our old English *Cold-harbours*, gives little more than stabling for beast and lodging for man in chambers furnished with nothing but vermin. On the chief roads from the capital a rather better-provided class of rest-house has been here and there established. There is a posting service, at the charge of a kran for each horse per parasang, a somewhat vaguely-measured distance on an average a little under 4 miles.

The government has been an absolute monarchy, the shah's despotism tempered only by popular riots and by the influence of the priesthood. The late shah, Nasr-ed-Din, so well known in Europe, had a long reign of half a century,

during which he seems to have thrown his influence on the side of progress, at all events so far as concerned its most showy features; but he could not always have his own way against the national conservatism, and his assassination is believed to have been prompted by fanatic hatred of the innovations he patronized. His second son had been appointed as heir, the eldest set aside as out of favour and of humbler birth on the mother's side. The sovereign chooses his administrators from any class, and may make a slave practically the ruler of the state, to be degraded again or murdered at caprice of his master. Hereditary aristocracy is confined to princes of the royal family, and to chiefs of the semi-independent military tribes. The blood royal must indeed be well diffused, if one shah of a century ago had, as is said, a thousand wives, and children by the hundred; and persons bearing the title of prince are often found in quite humble circumstances. The shah's sons and near kinsmen are usually preferred as provincial governors; then no small part of a just monarch's task may be checking oppression by these royal satraps or their deputies. The regular revenue, supplemented by fines, forced levies, and other occasional exactions, is mainly from a varying proportion of the produce of the land, paid in cash or kind, one-half perhaps going to the shah, the rest sticking to the hands of the local authorities. The collection of taxes, being farmed out, is carried on in an arbitrary and irregular manner, so as to be a game between the greed of the officials and the cunning of the citizen. There is also some yield from customs and what tribute can be collected from wandering tribes. As yet the only national debt is a loan contracted to pay compensation for the break-down of a tobacco monopoly, granted by the late shah, but withdrawn under force of public resentment. The currency is the seldom seen gold *toman*, about 7*s.* 6*d.*, the silver *kran*, equal to a few pence, and small copper and nickel coins; but accounts are popularly reckoned in *dinars*, a nominal figure whose name, familiar to us from the *Arabian Nights*, will not sound so imposingly when we learn that fifty of these go to a farthing.

There is nominally an army of some 100,000; but most of its ranks are a mere half-trained and ragged militia, not all kept under arms, and more ready to play the robber or the beggar than the warrior. Their uniform, when they have any, ought to be blue tunics faced with red, red trousers, and sheepskin busby, bearing in brass the Lion and the Sun, which make the Persian crest. The most serviceable force is the shah's body-guard, raised from the martial nomadic tribes, whose divisions Nasr-ed-Din amused himself by dressing up in imitation of European Cossacks, Uhlans, Cuirassiers, and so forth. He also set up a fleet of two or three gun-boats or yachts, more or less unserviceable. Experienced officers have declared that the Persians, properly trained and led, would make excellent soldiers, as their neighbours have learned in old times. But the whole machine of government is out of gear, except for oppression; its rusty wheels having always to be oiled by the bribery and the dishonest perquisites which, under various names—*bakshish*, "squeeze", *dustoor*, and, in Persia, *mudakhel*,—are the corruption of Oriental society.

Iran is the name of this land to its inhabitants, mainly of the Iranian race, a branch of our own Caucasian stock, fair in complexion for Orientals, with handsome features, long straight hair, and bushy black beards. These features are, however, blended, especially in the north and on the eastern borders, with the Turanian blood of Tartar and Turki tribes, to one of which belongs the present ruling

family. The nomadic pastoral bands of this stock are commonly known as Iliats. On the west are numerous Kurds and kindred mountaineer tribes, with Arabs to the south and Armenians to the north of this side. All over the country wandering gipsies, under the name of Luris, pick up a living as tinkers, leather-dressers, pedlars, and thieves. Another element of the population is the black slaves who have long been a point of respectability in Persian households, where they appear to be not unkindly treated as a rule, and are often emancipated by their masters as reward for faithful service.

Persian *Seyid*, with Water Pipe (*Kalian*)

The mass of this people are Mohammedans, but with a difference that causes the devout of Turkey or Tartary to spit at the name of these Persian heretics. Their country is the stronghold of the Shiah schism, which recognized Ali, son-in-law of the Prophet, as his successor, and rejected the Sunna, a body of tradition accepted along with the Koran by the orthodox Sunnites or adherents of Omar, who make the majority in the Moslem world. The Shiahs rival their revilers in devout bigotry to the letter and forms of the faith as in feeble regard for its moral spirit. Their mollahs and dervishes do not fall short of other bigots in showing themselves fanatical opponents of progress, while, indeed, some of the loudest professors are at heart unprincipled humbugs whose main care for religion is as a matter of profit. To be a *Seyid*, or descendant of the Prophet, distinguished by a green or dark-blue turban, is here almost an order of nobility; and *Hadji*, one who has performed the pilgrimage to Mecca, is a title of respect. This quick-witted and talkative people love to discuss matters of theology, and are duly punctilious as to the observances of their creed. But one of its characteristic precepts must be much neglected, to judge by the amount of wine produced and consumed, more or less *sub rosâ*, in the country of Omar Khayyam, where a coarse arrack spirit is much used as well as that forbidden juice of the grape. Yet such is human nature that when the shah granted to foreign enterprise a tobacco monopoly—innovation hateful as once the excise in England—the priesthood had power to declare a general boycott of this indispensable and permitted indulgence, and pipes were put out all over the capital by the combined force of popular and religious resentment, till the obnoxious measure was withdrawn.

It is the antipathies of faith that are strongest in Persia, where zealous hatred boils up in hot fits of fanaticism, but the normal temperature seems rather lukewarm till stirred by hatred of the infidel. The Shiahs are more averse than the Sunnites to letting an unbeliever so much as peep into their shrines. In most towns a European woman durst not show her face in the streets, especially when the populace is excited by religious fasts. A true believer affects to shrink from contact with one of another creed, and will smash the cup from which such a one has drunk. Popular superstition has for its ministers the fierce dervishes, answering to Hindoo fakirs, who wander about, often naked but for a leopard skin, armed with a huge club, demanding charity as a right, and imposing on all classes by a variety of qualities that range from lunacy to downright scoundrelism. In the Mohurram, or month of religious mourning, a very popular spectacle is a passion play representing the deaths of Hussein and Hassan, the sons of Ali, whose martyrdom is enacted in a realistic style that rouses the audience to frenzies of emotion, in which men rush about half-naked, beating and cutting themselves like the prophets of Baal. The great fast of the Ramazan, when for a month food, drink, or smoke must not pass the true believer's mouth from sunrise to sunset, is strictly kept, at least in public. The chief feast of rejoicing is the Moslem New Year that falls in spring, as in our Old Calendar, when

"the younge sun
Hath in the Ram his halfe course y-run".

This prevailing orthodoxy is not universal. Some Persian subjects, chiefly the Kurds, are Sunnites. The Sufis, with their mystical free-thinking pantheism, are heretics of old date and wide diffusion; and indeed the speculative turn of Persian faith has been a hotbed for sects. The remarkable Babi body of reformed Mohammedans has grown up in the last half-century, under hot persecution, and is believed now to count some millions of adherents in all classes.[1] Christians are

[1] One vigorous offshoot has here been thrown off by Islam so recently that there are men still living who have seen the birth of a new religion which may yet spread over the East, as did Buddhism and Mohammedanism itself. In 1844 a young man named Mirza Ali Mohammed announced himself as the *Bab* or gate by which his fellow-believers might enter upon a spiritual life, revealed to him through pious meditation and study. The history of this modern prophet is as yet little known in Europe: it has been sympathetically dealt with by Professor E. G. Browne, who made acquaintance with many of his followers. Other accounts agree in giving the movement the notes of a true religious reformation, alloyed with the mystic fancies of Oriental philosophy. Professing to be a return to the pure primitive Mohammedanism, the Bab's doctrine preached tolerance, denounced polygamy, raised the status of woman, forbade the use of tobacco, treated circumcision and other outward observances as matters of indifference, in short seems largely inspired by a Christian spirit, while its founder claimed to be, in some sort, a manifestation of divine truth, and appointed eighteen apostles to teach his gospel, nineteen being a sacred number in this revelation. His earnestness and eloquence had soon drawn about him disciples who became known as Babis; then their zeal excited the bigoted rage of the orthodox as also the suspicion of the Government. At the outset, indeed, some fanatics of the sect had to do with an attempt on the shah's life, and in the north a band of Babis held out in arms against his troops. The leader had been thrown into prison, where he occupied himself in writing books for the guidance and consolation of his followers, till in 1850 he was executed in a manner that came near to creating the fame of a miracle. Hung or tied up along with one of his disciples to be shot, when the smoke of the volley cleared away, while the other victim's body dangled lifeless, the Bab had disappeared. The bullets had cut the ropes by which he was fastened, and he had unseen taken refuge in a chamber close by, whence, being presently discovered, he was dragged forth again to death. These corpses, cast out of the city to be eaten by dogs, were rescued by friends who reverently swathed them in silk and sent them to Teheran. There buried in a little shrine, some years later, the venerated remains were removed to an unknown resting-place. By another extraordinary coincidence, with an obvious parallel, it is stated that a second disciple had for the moment escaped death by denying his master, but, afterwards repenting, welcomed the martyrdom from which human weakness had shrunk.

Here, again, the blood of martyrs proved to be the seed of the Church. The Babi beliefs spread in spite of bitter persecution, till the community formed a great secret society, whose relations with the orthodox believers were much like those of the early Christians with the synagogue. The Babis attended the mosques to practise the public duties of religion, while cultivating spiritual fellowship with the uninitiated in private conventicles, and cherishing the precepts of their founder. Of their sincerity, at least, there can be no doubt, since for nearly half a century they lived in danger of

tolerated, a proportion of the shah's subjects belonging to the Armenian Church, with an archbishop seated at Ispahan, and France for a protector. Of these and of the Nestorians and other peculiar churchmen scattered among them we shall speak more fully under the head of their own country. In the cities are communities of despised Jews, who may also be found travelling about in the character of acrobats and minstrels, and are employed in dirty jobs befitting such pariahs. There is still a remnant of the old national faith in the Guebres or Fire Worshippers, chiefly about Yezd and Kerman in the east, where they number a few thousand, marked off by a distinctive yellow dress and by features that seem best to represent the pure Persian blood, since they do not intermarry with other stocks. Looked on askance and often harshly treated at home, they are objects of kindly interest to their prosperous kinsmen in faith, the Parsees of Bombay.

The worldly side of Persian nature is represented by an abundant literature, in particular by florid and sententious poetry, best known to us through garbled translations of Omar Khayyam, that epicurean bard of the eleventh and twelfth centuries, who has so strongly commended himself to our *fin de siècle* mood. The other classical poets are to English readers little more than names: Firdousi, the Homer or Virgil of Persia; Hafiz, its Horace or Anacreon, who flourished about Chaucer's time; and Sadi, its melodious moralist, about a century older, while Firdousi died at the beginning of Canute's reign. The writings of these and other poets have been a liberal education for a people with whom an apt quotation weighs more than an argument; and still Persia bears a thick crop of poets whose lucubrations are apt to prove a mosaic of the figures and ideas with which their predecessors have enriched a most florid language. They are also very fond of such apologues and fairy tales as, through Saracenic channels, have found their way from India into European literature; and their histories, as we might expect, are coloured by the same bent to imagination. Persian rhetoric is almost a proverb for its amassing of complimentary metaphors and daring hyperbole, which to the practical Western mind seem such a waste of breath or ink. Almost alone among Moslem nations this one has cultivated the drama, notably in productions of a religious kind, resembling our Middle Age mystery plays. Its notions of science are mainly borrowed from the Arabian philosophers, but in the famous Nazr-ed-Deen it had one great astronomer when Europe was still in scientific darkness. In divinity its writings are copious, the Babi and other sects still blackening much paper in manuscript, or through the printing-

denunciation to the "rulers and Pharisees", of executions with cruel tortures, or of massacre by spasms of mob violence; and under these trials they appear to have shown a patience and fortitude which won them sympathy even of many who did not accept their faith. Up to 1891 they continued to suffer from outbreaks in several towns; then the official persecution relaxed, the shah being satisfied that they had no design to "turn the world upside down".

Meanwhile their faith had gone through another crisis. The mantle of the martyred prophet was by some believed to fall on a young man, Mirza Yahya, known as Ezel, who with other leaders took refuge at Baghdad. The Turkish Government, at the request of Persia, removed these exiles to European Turkey, where a schism took shape among them. Beha, the new prophet's half-brother, revealed himself as a stronger spirit and went on to declare that the Bab had been only forerunner of a higher manifestation in his own person. The church thus became split into Behaists and Ezelists, whose dissensions, exasperated to the point of bloodshed, prompted the Turkish Government to separate them, Beha being fixed at Acre and Ezel in Cyprus. While the faction of the latter dwindled, the former made good his claims to the allegiance of the whole, so that Professor E. G. Browne found the teachings of Beha more reverenced than those of the Bab himself, forty years after his martyrdom. Beha died in 1892, leaving a body of mystical doctrine, in which he is presented as the culminating light of a progressive series of revelations; and though his adherents, and those of his rival Ezel, seem to have fed more on the speculative than on the practical part of their teaching, his own saintly character marked a very much higher point of religious aspiration than the pretensions of that sanguinary Mahdi who at the same time flourished on the Nile. One saying of Beha is: "Let not a man glory in loving his country, but rather in loving his kind". His son, Abbas Effendi, living in venerated exile at Acre, is now looked on as the "Master" of this promising church, whose teaching has leavened Persia, and spread as far as America.

presses at work in the chief cities, where lithography is also much used for the multiplication of copies of a caligraphy cultivated here almost as a fine art.

Much attention has been given to the elaborate grammar and lexicography of the language, which began to take its modern shape some thousand years ago, and has since been recruited by many Arab words and phrases. The written character is Arabic, with additional letters and points. In the East, Persian holds much the same rank as French in Europe, having been introduced into India as the court language of its Moslem conquerors. Reading

Photo. W. H. Rau

The Bastinado Mode of Punishment

and writing are usual accomplishments among the better class, while even the uneducated, through listening to story-tellers and reciters, become to some extent familiarized with the classics, favourite passages from which pass as current as more homely proverbs.

The priests here are also lawyers, while the judges are officials of Government. In each province the governor has powers limited only by appeal to the shah, whose arbitrary dealings with the life and property of his subjects are restrained to some extent by respect for law as interpreted by the mollahs. The machinery of justice has to be so well greased by bribery that in civil cases litigants turn rather to arbitration; yet Dr. Willis remarks that to bribe a Persian court comes cheaper than the fees and costs of an English one. Criminals are at least dealt with expeditiously, in the case of petty crimes, by the cadi magistrates of towns, or by the headmen of villages. The rudiment of Persian justice is the bastinado, to which ordinary offenders are so

inured that they will choose it rather than a fine. The pettiest judge has his *ferrashes*, armed with long supple wands, who at a sign fling the culprit on his back, hold up his feet, fastened by loops to a pole, and break over them as many sticks as may be ordered, then let the poor wretch crawl away on all-fours as best he can, happy if he can afford means to poultice his sores with yolk of eggs, the approved remedy. All classes are liable to this castigation, which falls more sorely on a soft citizen than on the horny soles of the bare-footed peasant. Prisoners are kept in fetters or in the stocks. As severer punishments, maiming, blinding, and torturing are practised; and for the common mode of execution by cutting the throat may be substituted more cruel ones, crucifixion against a wall, boiling or baking alive, blowing away from guns. Women are sometimes thrown into a well, hurled from a tower, or wrapped in a carpet to be trampled to death. A dignified fate is strangling by a bowstring, or death by a cup of poisoned coffee, such as is believed to be still offered to those who have incurred the shah's enmity. It is fair to say that some of these atrocities may be spoken of in the past tense, at all events so far as the royal court is concerned; for Nasr-ed-Din, whatever his other faults, had no taste for cruelty, and though he went about attended by red-clothed executioners, did not care to be a spectator of their prowess. He was even known to pardon an unfortunate man who, by accident, made his way into the harem, that crime of deepest dye in an Eastern potentate's sight.

The old Israelitish law of "cities of refuge" is still illustrated here, such sacred spots as tombs of saints being held asylums in which the worst criminal is safe till he can be starved or tricked into surrender. Other curious points of refuge are the shah's stable, the tail of his horse, and a great gun standing in a square of Teheran, huddled round which may be seen a group of haggard murderers, safe here not only from the hand of the law but from the surer revenge of their victims' kin. The law of retaliation is recognized, especially in the old Persia of the south, and on the wild borders, where men still go armed, with blood for blood as a point of honour, so that the slaying of a neighbour may start a blood-feud for generations, unless the injured relatives can be propitiated by compensation.

In the arts of preserving life the Persians have not made so much progress as in those of inflicting pain or death. At Teheran, and perhaps in other large cities, there are physicians who condescend to borrow knowledge from the West, but the native faculty in general are ignorant quacks who divide diseases and remedies into *hot* and *cold*, and treat complaints so classified by their opposites. Purging and bleeding are in high honour, drastic treatment, at haphazard, being the rule. Surgery is rudely practised by barbers, farriers, and bone-setters; leeches, acupuncture, and the actual cautery are approved applications; but amputation is held in suspicion, as too much resembling the operations of the law. Jewesses and old women act as midwives. A flourishing practice among the poor is done by mendicant dervishes, who prescribe a charm or verse of the Koran, written on a piece of paper, to be swallowed as a pill, or the ink washed off into a draught. Magicians, diviners, and the like drive a good business. Even patients of the better class will sometimes not take the dose prescribed for them till they have called in an astrologer to fix an auspicious time for it; and the last moments of the dying are like to be passed in a tumult of noisily condoling friends, where the loudest note is the

sing-song ministrations of a mollah who, no more than the doctor, can drive away death. Usually, like other Orientals, the people have a greedy appreciation of Frankish remedies, but a man once declined to take medicine from Mrs. Bishop "for fear it should make him a Christian".

In connection with medical matters may be mentioned the hot baths, a luxury of the East which now needs no describing in England, though indeed our imitations are, as a rule, more comfortable, certainly more clean, than their originals. The attendants at them have a special skill in shampooing, kneading, and pounding the body, a handling much appreciated by Persians as

Persian Women: Outdoor Costume. (From a photograph)

refreshment after fatigue. Men shave their heads, as becomes good Mohammedans, but the late shah and many of his subjects were contumacious against priestly attempts to enforce that other Moslem custom of letting the beard grow, and affected rather a smart moustache. Both sexes are much given to the use of dyes and pigments, such as henna, with which men sometimes stain beards and hands brown, yellow, or even a brilliant red, which distinguishes the tails of the royal horses.

Where their nature is not obscured by fanaticism the Persians appear to be a lively, sociable, humorous, and talkative people, who bear the name of being the most fluent liars in the East. In public, indeed, they affect a grave exterior, and their ceremonious manners strongly contrast with the blunt rudeness of the Afghans. As in other Moslem countries their family life is a jealously-guarded one, but behind its bars a good deal of sensuality and infidelity is suspected. As usual, polygamy is the exception, poverty keeping most men to one wife. It is the houses of the rich that have their *anderun*,

or separate court for the women, in the centre of which flower-beds and orange-trees enclose a tank gleaming with great gold-fish; and round the sides open darkened rooms, often sumptuously furnished in a gimcrack style. Here the women gossip, titter, and yawn their lives away, like grown-up children, much of their time being spent in dressing, painting, sucking sweets, and smoking cigarettes. The common building material is half-baked earth, that gives the towns a monotonous drab colouring, relieved by gay striped awnings and wooden balconies, and by the often bright colouring of the mosques. Favourite internal decorations are wall-paintings, coloured tiles, wood carvings, stucco ornaments, mirrors, little bits of glass arranged in patterns, and small panes of coloured glass. Glass in the latticed windows is an exceptional luxury, instead of which oiled paper comes into use. The houses are flat-roofed, or with beehive-like tops, and the roof makes a sleeping or lounging place in hot weather, unless the household has some cool underground chamber in which to take refuge from the sun. On the roof, indeed, in full view of neighbours, go on intimate domesticities, airing of beds, whipping of children, the actual and the metaphorical washing of dirty linen, and what personal ablutions seem necessary. Better-class houses are sometimes provided with a shaft or turret for ventilating the interior; and such cowls may be seen topping the miserable huts of Mekran. On the sweltering shores of the Persian Gulf shelters are easily made of reeds or mats, cooled by throwing water over them, like the Indian *tatties*. There are no cheerful hearths for cold weather; but in the centre of the room may be a deep fire-hole round which the family huddle under a sort of tent made by blankets or quilts. It must be difficult to build for a climate that in winter freezes men to death on the uplands, while in summer on the plains "the air you breathe seems to be on fire", as an old traveller declares.

Persia is a cheap country to live in, food being more plentiful than money, though now and then it suffers grievously from famines. The staple food of the working-class is flat cakes of unleavened bread that may be used as plates or spoons for such "kitchen" as cheese, curds, fruit, or vegetables. In the south, dates, that most feeding of fruits, makes a large part of their diet. In the towns there are cook-shops for the sale of kabobs, lumps of roasted mince-meat stuck on a skewer; pilaws, stews of flesh and rice; jars of soup; and slices from a sheep baked whole. The rich have their dainty dishes, fowls boiled to rags and smothered in sauce, or a young lamb roasted whole and stuffed with nuts, dates, or raisins. The *menu* of a Persian banquet seems amazingly wasteful, but nothing is thrown away on the hungry attendants who crowd at the heels of each honoured guest. A visit from the shah or some other great man is looked on as a calamity, like a swarm of locusts. The favourite drink is sherbet, not the fizzy sherbet of our confectioners, but simply water iced and sweetened with various fruit-syrups; the choicest kind is distilled from willow flowers. Weak tea, much sweetened, is also a common beverage, for the making of which the Russian samovar has been adopted in Persia. Wine and spirits, as already mentioned, are much drunk more or less in secret, costing only a few pence a bottle, and Persians who do neglect the injunctions of their prophet are apt to drink to excess. The use of tobacco, which costs a few pence a pound, is general, smoked in cigarettes, but more commonly in the *kalian* or long hubble-bubble pipe, which is in constant use,

A PERSIAN SHOP

The plate shows the front of a Persian shop for the sale of fruits and vegetables. Persians are very fond of fruit, and many kinds are grown in the country. Among the principal varieties are quinces, peaches, apricots, plums, raisins, figs, almonds, pistachios, walnuts, and dates; and oranges are a product of the provinces bordering on the Caspian Sea. The vegetables include potatoes, tomatoes, melons, celery, cauliflower, and artichokes. These are grown more extensively than formerly, largely to meet the demands of Europeans resident in Persia.

(13)

A PERSIAN SHOP

and no great man stirs forth without his pipe-bearer. Opium-eating is a common indulgence, especially among old people. Women, and indeed all Persians, are much addicted to sweetmeats, a favourite form being that made from manna, a white substance either deposited by an insect on, or exuded from, the leaves of trees.

The national dress is wide trousers, tucked up into the waistband for work, and a belted coat with pleated skirt like an elongated Norfolk jacket, which among the higher classes often takes more the form of our frock-coat. The head-gear is a close felt cap or a high black lambskin hat, sometimes with a turban wound round it, and formerly worn much taller in shape, with an indentation at the top that seems the rudiment of our mitre. The women's costume indoors has been described as that of a ballet-girl without the tights, a short skirt often over bare legs, a smart jacket or blouse, and a cloud of gauze about the head. They never go abroad unless closely veiled and mantled from head to foot, but it is said that the veils grow thinner where foreigners are tempted to take a peep through them. The prevailing colour of outdoor dress is blue. The peasantry are often seen in faded rags, but this may sometimes be from policy rather than poverty, as in Persia it is not always safe to seem well off. For the same reason, perhaps, travellers give most differing estimates as to the general welfare of a people whose patient peasants and skilful artisans have no security for enjoying the fruits of their labour under a government best skilled in extortion and oppression.

Persian Lady: Indoor Costume

PROVINCES AND CITIES

After this general view of Persia, let us make a tour of its chief regions and most famous places, without pausing to mark all the minor divisions into governorships. On the east side, as already shown, it merges with Afghanistan and Beloochistan, where we entered it by the depressed sandy plain of Seistan, a thinly-populated and loosely-defined region whose main feature is the great lake, or rather swamp, lined by tall reeds, that within Persian territory absorbs the waters of the Helmand and of some smaller streams. These make ribands of green alluvium, else the general character of the country is a bare, stony, treeless

flat, here and there studded by ruins that redden the ground for miles with fragments of buildings and tiles. The capital of the Persian province of Seistan is Nasirabad, more of a fortification than a town, and not much of a fortification against modern arms. Yet those ruined cities are monuments of a time when Sigistan, its old name, flourished as the seat of the Persian monarchy, and was arena of the main exploits of Rustum, the national hero, sung by Firdousi. In many other parts of Persia we shall find the same contrast between past and present.

Southwards, we hence pass into Persian Beloochistan, a little-explored and thinly-populated country of deserts, swamps, and mountains. Its northern part, styled Sarhad, was first made known to us in 1885 by Captain Jennings, who here discovered an active volcano more than 12,000 feet high. The district to the south is more accessible from the sea, but still remains seldom visited by Europeans. In this corner Persia has been trying to extend its authority over wild tribes who are forced to pay tribute as far as they can be overawed by military expeditions into their fastnesses; but such authority is vague, and what seems a political chaos separates the Persian from the British-Indian sphere of influence. The capital of the Persian governorship is Bampur, upon a river of the same name that loses itself in the desert plateaus. This makes a dependency of the large Kerman province, on the north-west, to which we shall return on our survey. Farther south comes the Persian Mekran, or shore strip, whose chief town is Khasarkand, but no town in this part of the shah's kingdom appears to be much more than a name on the map.

In the other direction from Seistan, along the eastern border, stony ridges and stretches of desert lead northwards into the mountainous north-eastern corner of Persia, Khorassan, "Province of the Sun", cradle of that mysterious "Veiled Prophet" whose tale was told to Lalla Rookh. The name of this region once extended across the Herat River into Afghanistan, and still Persia covets the rich valley that now bounds her on the east. On the north the mountains look over the wastes and oases of Russian Transcaspia, where strong rule has made a great difference to the shah's subjects. The country is dotted with watch-towers, forts of refuge, and other strongholds now falling into decay; but only a generation ago the poor people went in constant terror of those bold Turcomans who from across the border pushed their raids for hundreds of miles, sometimes even to the heart of Persia, the Government giving no protection unless by fitful efforts or in the shape of Kurdish myrmidons who might take a hand in devastation on their own account. A rich bait for such freebooters would be the caravans of pilgrims to Meshed, the capital of Khorassan, mixed as they are with traders, seeking safety in numbers.[1] Now such a journey of devotion, or business, or both com-

[1] Dr. Bellew (*From the Indus to the Tigris*) describes one of these pilgrim caravans which he fell in with. "It was a curious spectacle, from the variety of costume and nationality and conveyance, all jumbled together in jostling confusion. We passed each other with mutual stares of wonderment, and I did not appreciate the novelty of the scene till it was gone from my sight. There were great shaggy camels bearing huge panniers, in which were cooped three or four veiled bundles of female beauty, rolling from side to side like a ship in a heavy swell. There were others mounted by wiry Arabs in their thin rope-turbans, or by thick-set Tartars in their shaggy sheep-skin caps, swaying to and fro with an energy that led one to suppose that the speed of the camel depended on the activity of their movements. There were pannier-mules bearing veiled ladies and their negress slaves, accompanied by their Persian lords, gay in dress and proud, on their handsome little steeds. There were quiet calculating merchants, with flowing beards and flowing robes, borne along by humble ponies as absorbed in thought as their riders; and there were sleekly-attired priests serene in their conscious dignity, comfortably flowing with the tide on their well-groomed and neatly-caparisoned mules. There were others too, a mixed crowd of footmen and women, all dusty and hot, struggling on to keep pace with their mounted wayfarers. How many will lag behind and fall to the Turkman's share? There are amongst these whole families

bined, can be undertaken without dread of Hadji Baba's experiences on this much-travelled road. Meshed, a city of 60,000 people, is one of the most sacred places in Persia, a visit to which gives the true believer the title of *Meshedi*, only inferior to that won by the supreme pilgrimage to Mecca. This celebrity it owes to the tomb of the Imam Reeza, Persia's patron saint, whose renown draws here the dead as well as the living, for it is held a privilege to be buried in his sanctifying neighbourhood, and the walled area, several miles in circuit, is largely taken up by close-packed cemeteries. In the vicinity are the ruins of Tous, a flourishing city under the early caliphs, burial-place of Firdousi and of the great Haroun Al Raschid.

For all its holiness, the population of Meshed is largely made up of swindlers, gamblers, and other scoundrels, drawn here through the sanctuary

At the Turquoise Mines of Nishapur: Native Workers near one of the Shafts

privilege attaching to the mass of domes and minarets consecrated by its saint's memory. It is a seat of commerce as well as of devotion, being a junction of caravan routes through Turkestan and Afghanistan; and probably before long it will be terminus of a branch from the Transcaspian railway. It has a special industry in the manufacture of vases, pots, pipes, and other articles made from a soft blue stone quarried in the vicinity; and it is also centre of the trade in turquoises, got chiefly from mines near Nishapur, to the west of Meshed, site of another great city of old that was Omar Khayyam's burial-place. There is said to be coal in the mountains to the north, where on the Russian frontier

emigrating in search of food and work; father and mother each bear an infant on their backs, and two or three of tender years trot by their side. There are tattered beggars, reduced by sheer want; and there are other beggars, the impudent, idle, and dissolute scoundrels who impose on the community by an ostentatious assumption of the religious character, through no other claim than that of their bold importunity, backed by noisy appeals to true believers in the name of God and Ali."

stands the natural citadel of Kalat-i-Nadiri, in which Nadir Shah deposited for a time the treasures he robbed from India. Its walls of mountain cliff were pronounced by Colonel Valentine Baker one of the wonders of the world; but this Eastern Gibraltar has been allowed to go to ruin, and it is such an unhealthy post that the soldiers stationed here frequently desert from death by fever.

The west side of Khorassan is cut off from the central provinces by enormous stretches of waste land, in the centre of which lies the Dasht-i-Kavir, or Great Salt Desert, one of the most desolate regions of the earth, some parts of which are said to be sunk below the level of the Caspian, while others rise in bare ridges sometimes looking over wide sheets of salt. On the north side of this wilderness the mountain mass has two branches westward, one running across Transcaspia to reach the east coast of the Caspian in the Little and Great Balkans, the other curving round the south end of that inland sea as the lofty Elburz chain. On its north side the Elburz walls off a strip of fertile and well-wooded country at present forming the Persian provinces of Asterabad, Mazanderan, and Ghilan, before long perhaps destined to fall into the hands of Russia. Mazanderan, noted for its black cattle and sturdy ponies, gets the benefit of rain-clouds from the Caspian before they are spilt upon the Elburz slopes, so that this country has a very different aspect from most of Persia: thick forests, green meadows, tall hedgerows, leafy lanes, and villages of thatched cottages, which Professor E. G. Browne found singularly English in appearance, as at one exceptional spot south of the mountains Dr. Bellew could almost have believed himself in Devonshire. There is only too much water on the lower plains, gathering into feverish marshes, edged by bare sand-dunes on the shore, near which stand the chief towns, Barfrush and Resht, the latter, with its adjacent harbour of the Enzeli lagoon, making the starting-point of the chief route from Europe by the Caspian into Persia. This district, under the eye of Russia, looks the most prosperous of the whole country. Resht itself is thriving as a centre of silk-making; at Enzeli the chief buildings are a gimcrack royal palace and a lighthouse, which its Persian keepers do not always take the trouble to light, difficult as is the entrance of the lagoon from the stormy and foggy Caspian, a port, indeed, now improved by the Russians, who hope to fall heir to it. The toll-bars on the road to Teheran are in Russian hands; and this road may be followed by Russian rails.

South of the Elburz range extends the central province Irak-Ajemi, the ancient Media, at the northern edge of which, on a hollow plain beneath the mountains, stands the modern capital, Teheran. This city, of over 200,000 people, is not very imposing in its array of mud walls and flat roofs; but during the reign of the late Shah it was improved by some finer buildings, and it has grown far beyond its old enclosure, the walls now making a circuit of some dozen miles. It is noted as kept clean for an Eastern city, and is well supplied with water by conduits. The mazes of the bazaars, where each trade finds its quarter, open out in wider thoroughfares, some of them lit by electric light and stirred by tramcars. The chief street, running through the city, is the Avenue of Ambassadors; so called from the foreign legations, among which the British Embassy ranks as the best modern building in Teheran. Others of note are a palace containing a native picture-gallery, among them over a hundred portraits, including some of European ambassadors,[1] and a college founded by the

[1] When English envoys came here in George III.'s reign, the Persians looked doubtfully on their not being dressed like an ambassador from Elizabeth, whose costume had been preserved in a picture.

Shah to give more enlightened teaching than can be had at the *medresses* or religious colleges. The Shah's palace covers a vast space with its irregular mass of halls, rose-gardens, and pavilions, giving no general effect in proportion to the riches it enshrines. In its great audience-hall, called the Museum, is, or used to be, shown to strangers a dazzling show of treasures worth several millions.[1] In another apartment is to be seen the gorgeous Peacock Throne, brought by Nadir Shah from Delhi, with its golden lions and peacocks and its adornments of

Scene in Teheran, showing flat roofs. A wedding procession is passing through the street below. (From a photograph)

gems, pearls, and enamel-work, valued at more than two millions; and elsewhere, among a further hoard of jewels and bullion, is kept that "Sea of Light", sister

[1] "The decorations of this magnificent hall are in blue and white stucco of the hard fine kind, hardly distinguishable from marble, known as *gatch*, and much glass is introduced in the ceiling. The proportions of the room are perfect. The floor is of fine tiles of exquisite colouring arranged as mosaic. A table is overlaid with beaten gold, and chairs in rows are treated in the same fashion. Glass cases round the room and on costly tables contain the fabulous treasures of the Shah, and many of the Crown jewels. Possibly the accumulated splendours of pearls, diamonds, rubies, emeralds, sapphires, basins and vessels of solid gold, ancient armour flashing with precious stones, shields studded with diamonds and rubies, scabbards and sword-hilts incrusted with costly gems, helmets red with rubies, golden trays and vessels thick with diamonds, crowns of jewels, chains, ornaments (masculine solely) of every description, jewelled coats of mail dating back to the reign of Shah Ismael, exquisite enamels of great antiquity, all in a profusion not to be described, have no counterpart on earth. They are a dream of splendour not to be forgotten. One large case contains the different orders bestowed on the Shah, all blazing with diamonds, a splendid display, owing to the European cutting of the stones, which brings out their full beauty. There are many glass cases from two to three feet high and twelve inches or more broad, nearly full of pearls, rubies, diamonds, sapphires, emeralds, flashing forth their many-coloured light—treasures not arranged, but piled like tea or rice. Among the extraordinarily lavish uses of gold and gems is a golden globe twenty inches in diameter, turning on a frame of solid gold. The stand and meridian arc of solid gold set with rubies. The equator and ecliptic are of large diamonds. The countries are chiefly outlined in rubies, but Persia is in diamonds. The ocean is represented by emeralds. As if all this were not enough, huge gold coins, each worth thirty-three sovereigns, are heaped round its base. At the upper end of the hall is the Persian throne."—Mrs. Bishop's *Journeys in Persia and Kurdistan*.

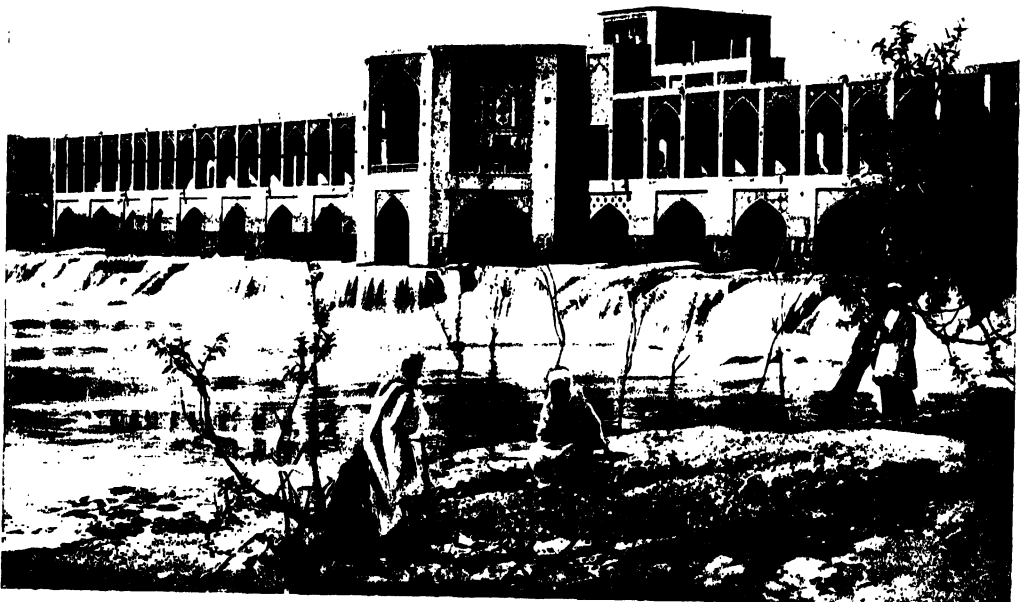
stone to the Koh-i-noor, both of which made part of the loot of Delhi. As an Afghan chief appreciatively remarked to Sir John Malcolm on his first view of Calcutta, "What a place this would be to plunder!"

The Shah has other palaces outside the city, and he usually takes refuge from the summer heats on the mountains above, as do most of the better-class citizens, in villages and villas along the Elburz slopes. The ambassadors find summer quarters a few miles out; ours at Gulahak, which is treated as British territory, and its inhabitants live under British protection. As Fuji-yama in view of Tokio, so here, forty miles away, rises the cone of Demavend, the most famous mountain of Persia (about 19,000 feet), whose snowy robe and turban of cloud hide the ashes of former eruptions, still threatened from time to time in violent earthquakes.[1] A few miles south of the capital, among the ruins of the ancient Median city Rhe or Rhages, the later town, Shah-Abdul-Azim, is hallowed as a sanctuary by its golden-domed mosque, so that, like Meshed, it has become an Alsatia of rascaldom.

Ispahan, the ex-capital, lies about 200 miles south of Teheran, the way passing by a great lake that has flowed out in modern times through the destruction of a river embankment. The road is a fairly good one as far as Kum, another sanctuary and focus of scoundrels and fanatics, to which caravans of swaddled corpses are brought to be buried round the gilded tomb of Fatima, Imam Reeza's sister, and those of old kings and innumerable saints; it is also celebrated, like Meshed, for its pottery and the blue tiles that adorn its mosques and shrines; but this industry has not kept it from falling into decay, any more than its trade in tombstones and in entertaining tens of thousands of living pilgrims and burying thousands of dead yearly. A less gruesomely industrious place on the way is Kashan, which has long had a name for brass and copper work and silk manufactures; but this too has fallen into pitiful dilapidation, and its 30,000 or so of inhabitants bear a proverbial reproach of cowardice, as their town is ill-famed for scorpions. Here strikes off south-eastward a road to Yezd, which, as before mentioned, is the chief seat of the old Fire-worshippers, and has been renowned for the beauty of its women. This and Kerman, more than 200 miles farther in the same direction, where also the Guebres still hold out, are the only considerable places on that side, both of them having a population of about 40,000, which represents the poverty of the south-eastern province Kerman, whose mountains border the Great Salt Desert extending towards Seistan and Khorassan.

Ispahan, or Isfahan, the Moscow of Persia, had a million inhabitants in the golden age of Shah Abbas the Great, the Persian Haroun, but has now shrunk to under 100,000, whose houses stand among the ruins of its past grandeur upon a space of twenty miles in circuit, 5000 feet above the sea. Still, as Sir John Malcolm found nearly a century ago, the old capital has an air of distinction in "its beautiful environs, its palaces, splendid even in decay, its college with massy gates of silver, its magnificent bridges, its baths, its

[1] Demavend, though declared inaccessible by Persians, makes a climb more fatiguing than difficult. It has been ascended by several Europeans; for one, by Mr. E. Stack, who found the crater filled with snow and rimmed with stinking rocks of almost pure sulphur. A clear view should extend over 50,000 square miles. "Teheran can be seen, and the Kohrud Mountains 160 miles south of it; the Great Kavir can be dimly perceived through its haze of heat to the south-east; while to the north—a faint blue field under the horizon—stretches the Caspian behind the cloudy forests of Mazanderan. On the right hand and on the left were mountains of from 10,000 to 12,000 feet in height; we overlooked them all with their thinly-scattered snows. But what a lifeless prospect! Teheran so many miles away, and all the rest mere desert and crag and desolation, with here and there a village lost on the bare mountain-side."

arched bazaars, its fountains, its far-famed river Zindeh-rud, and the gardens on its banks, shaded with lofty sycamores, and filled with every flower and fruit of the temperate zone". In the centre of the city is the Royal Square or *Maidan*, 560 yards long by 174 broad, where, as in our Pall Mall, the Persian nobility used to play a national game which now flourishes on British soil as polo. Round this are the chief public buildings; the vast palace, whose courts, pavilions, and gardens extend over a space miles in circuit; the richly-adorned royal mosque, whose huge dome makes a conspicuous feature of Ispahan seen from a distance; its principal bazaars—miles of lofty arcades and vaulted alleys

Galleried Bridge at Ispahan — Photo. W. H. Rau

opening into great open squares and caravanserais, too large for the traffic that fills some parts of them with a jostling throng of men and beasts, a display of wares from far and near, and a din of clamorous haggling such as goes with the doing of all business in the East. Two of the bridges of the river are remarkable for their galleried and arcaded structure, one of them being built upon a dam, over which the river, swollen by spring floods, rushes in artificial cataracts, making a sight for the people of Ispahan as the bore of the Severn does for Gloucester. Another lion in the vicinity is the Mosque of the Shaking Minarets, both of which, though forty feet distant, vibrate when a person shakes himself at the top of one of them.

The royal palace here, said to be the finest in the kingdom, is still a scene of court life, this important province being usually the satrapship of one of the Shah's sons. Of late the city has shown signs of reviving prosperity through its manufacture of wool, silk, and other wares, and it stands second only to

Tabriz as a business centre. Bits of desert may be seen bordering the suburbs; but the country round, once more noted for its melon gardens, has been largely replanted with gay poppies, which prove a paying crop, though the opium extracted from them is inferior to that of India. Europeans mostly live across the river in the Armenian settlement Julfa, whose people were transplanted here by Shah Abbas from their town of the same name on the Araxes, as the Jews from Jerusalem to Babylon. This is the seat of the Armenian patriarch, and around its cathedral it has several churches, some of which now stand empty in a dwindled town; for not only is the Armenian fold poached on by Roman Catholic and Protestant missionaries, but the men go away to seek their fortunes in India and elsewhere, leaving the women to earn a livelihood mainly by knitting stockings. Their red and white costumes, marking them off from the blue-clad Moslem women, brighten the mud-walled lanes of Julfa, through which run streams of water bringing life to its green enclosures.

South of Ispahan lies the largest province of Fars[1] or Faristan, "the real Persian heart of Persia", whose capital, Shiraz, is famed as the seat of Persian poetry and philosophy as for the beauty of the rose-gardens, orchards, and cypress groves in which are set its turquoise domes and slender towers; and not its least charm is meadows of grass such as are rare in the East.[2] Much of this fame is due to its poets Hafiz and Sadi, whose graves in the blooming outskirts are venerated like those of our Shakespeare or Burns; but Shiraz also owes much to its rich, well-watered soil, and to a climate that cherishes the productions both of the south and the north. Grapes come here to perfection, and the strong Shiraz wine is celebrated, as is the oil extracted from its roses. It claims to have the finest bazaar in Persia, with a rich show of the silver and mosaic wares turned out by its artisans. Yet Shiraz is but a shadow of its former wealth, attested by the ruins that seem the chief production of the land, in this case largely brought about by a destructive earthquake some half-century ago. Its population has declined to about 50,000, who bear the name of being more lively and friendly, and less fanatical, than the inhabitants of the northern cities. It may yet come to be best known as the birthplace of that reformer who was the original prophet of the Babi community.

To the north of Shiraz lie the world-renowned ruins of Persepolis, as well as different groups of remains, one of which is a conspicuous white building known as the legendary Tomb of Cyprus, or to the natives as the Mosque of the Mother of Solomon, besides the ancient rock sepulchres described by Sir R. K. Porter and other explorers. Persepolis stands a little way off the road from Ispahan to Shiraz. On this is Yezdeghast, which, though a poor village, seldom fails to be noted by travellers for its extraordinary position, a close-packed mass of poor houses huddled along the top of a tongue of rock half

[1] "f" and "p" are readily interchangeable in the language, as shown by Ispahan, properly *Isfahan*.

[2] "Hard by the tomb of Hafiz is a garden, one of many of the kind around Shiraz. It is called 'The Garden of the Seven Sleepers', and is much frequented in summer by Shirazis of both sexes. A small open kiosk, in shape something like a theatre proscenium, stands in the centre, its outside walls completely hidden by rose and jasmine bushes. Inside all is gold moulding, light blue, green, and vermilion. A dome of looking-glass reflects the tesselated floor. Strangely enough, this garish mixture of colour does not offend the eye, toned down as it is by the everlasting twilight shed over the mimic palace and garden by overhanging branches of cypress and yew. An expanse of smooth-shaven lawn, white beds of lily and narcissus, marble tanks bubbling over with clear, cold water, and gravelled paths winding in and out of the trees to where, a hundred yards or so distant, a sunk fence divides the garden from a piece of ground two or three acres in extent—a perfect jungle of trees, shrubs, and flowers."—H. de Windt's *Ride to India*. This gives an idea of these gardens so much admired in Persia, but which some travellers find not to justify their reputation.

a mile long, accessible only by a bridge across a deep chasm. "It was like a picture by Gustave Doré," found Mr. De Windt; "and looking up the dark perpendicular side of the rock at the weird city with its white houses, queer-shaped balconies and striped awnings, standing out clear and distinct against the starlit sky, gave one an uncomfortable, uncanny feeling."

Persepolis makes a stupendous monument of such antiquity, that Alexander the Great is said to have fired one of its halls in a fit of drunken fury; yet this dry climate has preserved through successive conquests a forest of columns, halls, and sculpture carved from the enduring limestone of the district. These remains stand upon a partly artificial platform ascended by a broad and easy staircase, up which one can ride on horseback to the porch guarded by colossal monsters; then other stairs lead to terraces, where the buildings were displayed against a background of rocks in whose face elaborate carvings mark the entrance of royal tombs. The principal structures, to be traced by broken walls and pillars, are the Hall of Xerxes, the palace of Darius, the palace of Xerxes, and beside them the vast Hall of a Hundred Columns, where the Great King sat in spacious state surpassed only at Karnak in Egypt.[1] For a full and careful account of these monuments the reader may be referred to the second volume of Lord Curzon's great work on Persia. He was not so much scandalized as some travellers have been by the way in which among ancient carvings and inscriptions are found scrawled modern names, both European and Oriental, which, indeed, seem hardly out of place when among them appear records of visits by such men as Niebuhr, Thevenot, Chardin, R. K. Porter, John Malcolm, and H. M. Stanley. Lord Curzon's book describes also the wonderful rock sculptures at Shapur, to the west of Shiraz, relics of that mighty Sapor, who has elsewhere left traces of his royal taste for building.

South of Shiraz, through the rugged mountains of Laristan, forming a series of broken stairs, one descends from the interior plateau to the shore of the Persian Gulf, pronounced by sweltering voyagers the hottest sea in the world. Between this and the mountain terraces of the interior lies a narrow strip of flat land that seems to offer itself as way for a railroad from the Euphrates Valley to India. "These torrid plains," says Lord Curzon, "called by the natives Garmsir (hot region), extend to the foot of the hills, where a lower sandstone ridge frequently intervenes before the main range, or mountains proper, known as Sardsir (cold region), are reached. Upon these no speck of green, no token of life is visible. Pink they glow in the early morning under the rising sun; gray they glisten under the full noontide blaze, when their veteran scars can be traced or counted in the field-glass; lilac they linger

[1] "The long rows of figures, arranged in processional form around the base of the buildings and up the sides of the staircases, are, when first seen, unintelligible and confusing, but all these, together with those in the palaces of the kings, are, on further examination and consideration, seen to present a oneness in composition which is exceedingly remarkable. The one theme which these figures go to represent, and the one idea which is dominant throughout the arrangement and sculpture of these remarkable buildings, is the greatness and glory of one man: 'The Great King', 'The King of kings', 'The King of all inhabited countries', 'The King of this great earth, far and near', as the cuneiform inscriptions proudly term him. Not only do these sculptures help to make us realize the might, the glory, and the power of these Eastern monarchs, but the processions of figures show us the uses for which the gigantic halls, such as the Hypostile Hall of Xerxes and the Hall of One Hundred Columns were intended. Some of the columns of the former still stand towering upwards 60 feet high; those of the latter, the one which Alexander in his drunken freak permitted to be burnt, all lie shattered. In them the King of kings held his court, receiving, as is shown in the sculptures, the representatives and tribute-bearers from the numerous subject kingdoms. We see them, in their different national garbs, bearing presents from the nethermost parts of the earth—tusks of ivory, ingots of gold, skins of animals, the famed horses of Armenia, the humped oxen from India, and the double-humped camels from Bactria."– E. Treacher Collins' *In the Kingdom of the Shah.*

longer on the landscape as the fugitive afternoon throws them into deepening shade; umber they merge and are swallowed up in the umber night. The last impression of the traveller, as he leaves Persia, is that wherewith he entered it. It is a land of mountains, and oh for a sight of green grass!"

The mouth of the gulf is the Strait of Ormuz, so called from the island whose name Milton coupled with India's as a proverb of wealth, and which served as a resting-place for the Parsees before their forced emigration into India. This is now deserted, its once famous port being transferred to Bender Abbas on the mainland, which, indeed, has no proper harbour, but a shallow anchorage, where boats bring out goods to be shipped; and, instead of pearls, ivory, and cloth of gold, a recent traveller has to tell us how his vessel here took in grindstones and senna-leaves. Kishm is a larger island in the strait, and there are others in the gulf, among which pearl-fishing is still carried on "under Oman's green water". Oman, or Muscat, is an Arab state on the opposite shore, under protection of Britain, by whose cruisers peace and order are kept on a sea that once swarmed with pirates. Bender Abbas is practically an Arab town, over which and its neighbourhood the Sultan of Oman long claimed sovereignty. The Gulf of Oman makes the outer reach of the Persian Gulf, beyond the straits, where on the north shore Persia extends into the Mekran coast, the eastern half of which belongs to British Beloochistan. Within the strait, a little to the west of Kishm, Lingah, a town of perhaps 10,000 people, is the only gulf port that possesses a small wet-dock; but it, like the neighbouring roadsteads, is frequented chiefly by coasting craft.

Three hundred miles higher up the gulf, south-west of Shiraz, comes Bushire, the chief port of Persia; yet this too has no proper harbour, vessels lying in an anchorage two or three miles out. It is a dirty, unhealthy place of some 10,000 people, who, for half the year, declares Mr. Collins, are fain to sleep on the roofs of their houses and curse the dawning of the pitiless sun, under which their only good drinking-water has to be brought from miles away. This uninviting town was taken by us in our Persian war of 1857, when Sir James Outram won a battle at Kushab on the road to Shiraz. We also captured and gave up Mohammerah in the Euphrates Delta at the head of the gulf, a poor place which may rise into importance from its position upon the mouth of the Karun, Persia's only navigable river, which is free to trade; but its practicable channel passes for a little through Turkish ground, and can at any time be closed by a fortification in the hands of this foreign power.

Through the province of Khuzistan, now known rather as Arabistan from the number of Arab tribes who inhabit its river flats on both sides of the frontier, the Karun takes a very twisting and tortuous course from the bold mountain ridges that rise towards Ispahan. Though at one place its channel is impeded by rapids, steamers can ascend to Shuster, the provincial capital, which among other remains has a remarkable bridge built upon a dam made for irrigation purposes. To the north-west, on a tributary, Dizful seems a larger town, about which indigo is cultivated. Not far from it are huge mounds marking the site of Susa, "Shusan the palace", one of Persia's many ancient capitals, where interesting excavations have been made. There has also been unearthed an oil-field, which is to draw a British railway in this direction from the Persian Gulf.

The old Susiana, or Elam, merges in the province of Luristan, formed by a mass of parallel ridges rising to 10,000 feet, and higher on the side of Fars.

The name Diz, often recurring among these mountains, marks almost inaccessible rock fortresses of the wild Lur and Bakhtiari clans, who live in a state of inter-tribal feuds and of unwilling submission to Persia, cultivating some patches of ground, but owning rather flocks and herds with which they move from higher to lower pastures according to the season. In manners and customs they resemble their neighbours the Kurds, whose principal seats are on Turkish ground. But along the mountainous frontier this people overflows into the Shah's kingdom, and to the north lies Persian Kurdistan, whose chief town, Kermanshah, makes a dilapidated contrast with its traces of old state, and the impressive rock sculptures in the vicinity. Ardelan is another name for the province, which a quarter of a century ago was swept by a formidable insurrection of the Kurdish tribes, farther up mingled with Armenians and other stocks towards the northern corner, where Persia exercises a feeble control on the chronically rebellious mood of its tributary highlanders.

Archway of the Blue Mosque, Tabriz. (From a photograph)

To the east of Ardelan we come again into the central province, on this side of which Hamadan is noted for its wine and other products, and for the adjacent ruins of Ecbatana, famed seat of Median and Parthian kings. Here are shown the tombs of Estner and Mordecai, a place of pilgrimage for the Jews. Farther north, under the Elburz range, Kazvin, on the road between Teheran and Tabriz, is another city of some importance, near which is said to have been the stronghold of that fanatical chief Hassan, "the Old Man of the Mountains", whose followers stood godfather to our word *assassin*.

All this border of Persia, magnificent in its landscape features, is more flourishing than the deserts of the east; and the decay of its towns comes from man rather than from nature. The north-western province, Azerbijan, owes its relative prosperity in part to a considerable Armenian element in the population, the thickest of any Persian region. Tabriz is the chief city, which used to be

called the largest in Persia, but, after much suffering from war and earthquakes, it appears now to have fallen below Teheran in numbers. Its dilapidated Blue Mosque, and its lofty brick "Ark", or Citadel, are believed to date from the days of Haroun Al Raschid; and in its lively and extensive bazaars are still carried on a considerable amount of commerce and manufacture, stimulated by the nearness of Russia, which before long may make a railroad this way, at present one high-road of her trade with Teheran. This principal emporium of the kingdom is largely peopled by active Armenians, whose patriarch has his seat here. The country people are of Turki stock to a great extent, their language being Turkish. The whole province, as the richest in Persia, was usually the governorship of the Shah's heir, and this Persian Prince of Wales made his chief residence at Tabriz, where many of the citizens would gladly have seen him replaced by a Russian governor. In the late revolution, Tabriz was a stronghold of the Constitutionalists, held against the Shah's brigand troops.

The rich environs of the city, itself standing higher than Ben Nevis, are overshadowed by mountains that northwards spread over a projecting tongue of Persia to Mount Ararat, where the Aras river forms the northern frontier. In this direction, by Khoi and the pass of Bayazid, goes the main trade-route into Armenia. On the west a plain opens out to the great Lake Urumia, 80 miles long, its salt shallows, studded with rocky islets, beautifully blue to the eye but offensive to the nose, miles off, by an odour of sulphuretted hydrogen. A dozen rivers are swallowed up in this lake after watering on its western shore the "Paradise of Persia", where a considerable town of the same name, Urumia, is said to have been the birthplace of Zoroaster, teacher of the ancient Persian faith, and now makes a centre of clashing missions to the Nestorian Christians, numerous on either side of the Turko-Persian border. On the south of Tabriz flows the Safid Rud, whose fertile course breaks through the Elburz chain, then it falls into the Caspian near Resht, already mentioned as the chief entrance to Persia from that sea. The port nearest to Tabriz is Astara, if port can be called this landing-place at the mouth of a little river which here bounds a projection of Russian territory southward along the flat Caspian shore. "On one side of the narrow river", expressively describes Mr. De Windt, "a collection of ramshackle mud-huts, neglected gardens, foul smells, beggars, and dogs—Persia; on the other, a score of neat stone houses, well-kept roads and paths, flower-gardens, orchards, a pretty church, and white fort surrounded by the inevitable black-and-white sentry-boxes, guarded by a company of white-capped Cossacks—Russia!"

In 1903 Persia adopted a tariff favouring Russia at the expense of Britain. But now Russia's misfortunes have gone to lessen its pressure on the north of Persia, which, by an agreement between our government and the Czar's is to be open to British enterprise. Persia's own recent history may be briefly summed up. Shah Muzaffer-ed-Din had granted his people a constitution on European models, with a national council of senate and elected representatives. His son, Mohammed Ali Mirza showed dispositions to revert to despotism, the first fruits of reform, indeed, having been general lawlessness and sporadic rebellion. Parliamentary opposition came to fighting in the streets of Teheran, till the Shah, guarded by Cossacks, took refuge in the Russian legation, thus practically abdicating, when his young son, Ahmed Mirza was placed on the throne under a Regency. It remains to be seen how exotic institutions can take root in a land long ruled by the stick and the sword. As yet the crop seems something like anarchy.

ASIA MINOR
AND ITS BORDERLANDS

TURKEY IN ASIA

For the most westerly corner of Asia, sometimes styled "The Nearer East", with its medley of races and overlapping divisions, it is difficult to find a title without doing violence to fact. The only unity the greater part of it has is in the yoke of Turkey, which may sooner or later be shaken off. On the north-east, indeed, Russia has encroached both upon Persia and upon Turkey, and seems likely to advance her borders here. Persia and Turkey are separated by a conventional frontier, along which subjects of the same blood own different allegiance. The Armenians and other Christian elements of population break up the dominant faith of Islam. The vast plain of Mesopotamia varies the general conformation of high table-land wrinkled and knobbed by mountains. The merging of one or other characteristic forces us to regard as a whole a region that may come to be split up into rival states; and this arrangement will prove satisfactory if we bear in mind that the classical Asia Minor was the western division, here defined as Anatolia, and that Turkey in Asia does not include the Caucasian isthmus connecting it with Russia.

The quarter of Asia unhappy enough to be ruled from Constantinople covers at least 500,000 square miles, and more if we take in the Porte's vaguer authority over Arabia. Its population, including Arab subjects, is above 20,000,000, all statistics, here as in other backward countries, being to a great extent guesswork. This sparse inhabitation is made up by alien and often hostile stocks, themselves of mingled ancestry. The aboriginal peoples were permeated by streams of Greek, Roman, and even Gallic conquest; then the Oriental warriors, pushed out for a time by Europe, swept back to become in turn the uppermost stratum, compact not so much in blood as in faith, since many of the original inhabitants escaped the pressure of conquest by adopting their masters' religion. On the east side will be found a sprinkling of Persians and Caucasians, with Tartar, Kurd, and Arab tribes, and the numerous Armenians who, as we go westward, are seen in the towns rather than in the fields. On the Mediterranean, Greeks live most thickly, but are spread out over the land once colonized by their civilizing energy. In the south, Syrians and Chaldæans mingle with the Arabs, on the edge of their native deserts. Moslem Circassians, escaping the yoke of their new masters, have emigrated into Turkish domains as far south as Syria, while in return persecuted Armenians have sought refuge among their fellow-Christians across the Russian frontier. Up to this frontier the majority of the inhabitants, or a full half, are the

Osmanlis, whom we call Turks, while the latter name here properly belongs, to ruder offspring of the same stock that planted a shoot over the Bosphorus to be a sore thorn in the side of Europe. Asia Minor still contains semi-nomad tribes of this race, little more civilized than their devastating ancestors, and sometimes hardly to be distinguished from the gypsy hordes common in the country, as Jewish communities are in the towns.

Over all rules the proud pig-headed Osmanli, who has some good qualities as a man, but very bad ones as a master. While his own religion is dominant, the number of his Christian vassals has forced upon him a nominal toleration which yet leaves the infidel in a position of galling inferiority both legal and social, with

the one advantage of not being obliged to military service. So close under the eye of Europe, Turkish government has lost some of its congenial cruelty; which, indeed, is not a private vice of the settled people, though the ill-paid bashi-bazouks and other irregular levies take too kindly to any chance of robbery and outrage. Such horrors as impalement have been shamed down; tortures, if still practised, are kept in the dark; and even the bastinado seems now in most parts an anachronism. But the authority of the Turk is still a rusty, clumsy engine, worked by extortion and dishonesty, and efficient mainly for oppression. The old hereditary aristocracy of beys and agas, often semi-independent, has been replaced by a poor and greedy officialdom. Most of the arrogant pashas are wide awake only to their own interest, nor even intelligently to that; and their subordinates better the example set them in high places. The main task of governing is screwing as much as possible out of the unfortunate tax-payers, and so as to let as little as possible slip past the hands of collectors, who in spirit and methods descend from the odious publican of old. Public spirit and patriotism appear scarcely known among a people of extortioners and their victims, the latter never unwilling, sometimes eager to accept any foreign deliverer from their present tyrant.

Where, now and then, an honest and active official makes efforts at improvement, these are as likely as not to lead to his downfall; and, in any case, he cannot count on a secure tenure of power to carry out a struggle against the inert force of custom. In one city we hear of the governor being changed ten times in four years. Midhat Pasha, who brought disgrace upon himself as a reformer, was governor at Baghdad, Damascus, Smyrna, Tripoli, and other places, but at none of them for long. The ruler, temporarily powerful for petty tyranny, reflects the central focus of court favour, where at any moment a cloud of disfavour may arise to blight his dignity, as will almost certainly be his fate unless he can wring from the province under him a satisfactory contribution to the general sink of bribery and corruption at Constantinople.

Thus it comes that Turkish Asia remains a loose bundle of backward and feeble provinces, after traversing which many a stranger, like Dr. Ainsworth, has to report that he found "nothing but indolence, poverty, and exaction—ignorance, fanaticism, and rapacity". *Vilayet* is the usual title of the administrative divisions, each under a *Vali*, or governor, with his subordinate officials, *Caimacams*, *Cadis*, and so forth, down to the *Zaptiehs*, who very ill perform some of the duties of policemen. The currency is the Turkish pound, *lira* or gold medjidié (18*s*.), divided into 100 *piastres*, with *paras* as a smaller denomination; but there are local coins and varieties of value. The silver medjidié, or dollar, is worth between three and four shillings. In Russian territory the rouble, divided into 100 kopeks, is nominally about three shillings, depreciated in its paper form.

Of the customs of such a mingled people it is impossible to give any general view, and their costume varies from the sheep-skin of the Kurdish shepherd to the closely-buttoned frock-coat and trousers of the townsman or official. Much of what has been said about Persia more or less applies to the food, houses, manners, and morals found across the Turkish border: it is by gradual transition that are reached the partly Europeanized features of life on the Mediterranean, though in most respects the true son of Islam holds stiffly to his old ways. The Sunnite mosques are said to be marked by minarets more than the Shiah fanes of Persia; but perhaps the most frequent signs that we have passed from the dominion of the Shah into that of the Sultan are the red fez replacing the turbans and tall caps of Iran, and tea being changed for coffee as the national luxury. Persian drunkenness is left behind among the sober Turks; but Oriental dirt and disorder go with us up to the Hellespont, and beyond it. Like the Persian, the lazy Turk, when not driven to work, delights to sit in the cloudland of his long pipe, and to toy with the wives whom he jealously secludes from other eyes, while here the peasantry, schooled by need, appear industrious, honest, frugal, and faithful to the one wife, who is indeed less a partner than an attached menial. Slavery exists in a mitigated form. We shall everywhere find ignorance, bigotry, and the heavy hand of custom that keeps the East in its old ways, where still, as in Scriptural days, the countryman tills his land with a sharpened stake drawn by oxen or buffaloes, which sometimes go muzzled when they tread out the corn, and armed herdsmen drive their flocks in search of still waters and green pastures, now on the upland plains, now on the snow-cleared mountain slopes.

The climate has the same extremes as we have seen over a great part of Asia, with varieties conditioned by mountains and sea. The bare treeless uplands that form a great part of the interior are in winter buried under snow, in summer parched to dust. The rivers, at one season shrunk to a thread, to be again swollen

by spring torrents, water green valleys that too often have degenerated into fever-breeding swamps. On the coasts the temperature becomes more genial, resembling that of south-eastern Europe, whose flora thrives on the outer slopes, where forests or fields get a lion's share of rainfall coming from the Mediterranean and the Black Sea. Much of the land, even in what may be called the less uncivilized quarters, has gone out of cultivation; but these are fairly free from dangerous beasts, unless on some rugged borders. The different aspects and productions of

Types of Men of Asia Minor, the centre one probably Levantine. (From a photograph.)

nature will, however, best be dealt with incidentally, as we visit each of the main divisions.

Travelling through this region, like most other Turkish arrangements, shows much room for improvement. On its time-honoured roads, mostly bad, sometimes existing only as broken stretches, often bridgeless, trade is carried on by caravans, in which the patient camel makes the chief motive power. Rough carts and wagons, conveyance on which proves a jolting torture, will not everywhere be available. *Khans*, what are elsewhere called caravanserais, are provided as harbour for travellers; here and there may be found a kind of poor inn, whose name, *locanda*, suggests European influence; and every Turkish village has its guest-house, where the heads of the community see to the entertainment of strangers. The roads are not always safe; in some parts the traveller must let himself be hampered by an escort—as to which the question sometimes is *quis custodiet*

custodes?—in others, the officials frankly confess that they can promise no safety, except to arms and numbers. A good deal has been done in our time to put down the open brigandage that once made it perilous to ramble even in the outskirts of such a city as Smyrna; but this is said to increase at first rather than diminish with the making of railways.

The railways which have been opened from the western coast should eventually bring about a great change, though as yet their traffic be not very great, most of them seeming to find one passenger train a day enough for the local needs. From the Asian side of the Bosphorus, one line runs south almost across the Anatolian peninsula to Konia, giving off a branch to Angora in the centre of Asia Minor, and on the other side connected, or to be connected, with two lines pushed inland from Smyrna. Other central railways are in project, the chief one to be continued beyond Angora to the Persian frontier, and joined by lines from the northern ports Samsoun and Trebizond. The most important enterprise on foot is the great Baghdad railway, promoted by the Germans, who now cast business-like eyes on this undeveloped region. The plan fixed upon is to hold eastward from Konia along the south side of Anatolia, then through the Taurus and across the Euphrates valley to Mosul on the Tigris, down which the line will turn south to Baghdad, and may be carried on to the Persian Gulf, having thrown off branches to centres of caravan commerce on the way. The distance is about 2000 miles from Constantinople, and eight years is spoken of as the time for completing the work. Syria has already several railways, from Beyrout and from Haifa inland to Damascus and Aleppo; then a short one from Jaffa to Jerusalem; and as the latter brings pilgrims at ease to one holy place, a line has been constructed southward from Damascus with the ambitious design of crossing the desert to Mecca, visited annually by so many devotees under such great difficulties. The activity of Russia in railway-making has stirred the Porte to let European speculators do for it what a good and solvent government should be forward in doing of its own motion.

We are now to survey a region famous in myth and in history, provinces whose modern names are often less familiar to Europe than those of their old greatness, scenes of resounding conquest, once mighty cities long dwindled or decayed, their squalid houses perhaps quarried out of massive ruins, rivers better known in poetry than in trade reports, mountains and deserts whose features have coloured our own language, spots that were the first nursery of our faith. What enchantment this eastern land bears to the eye of imagination is sadly apt to prove a mirage when seen close at hand. But without dwelling on what has been or on what may yet be, let us pass to the present state of Asia Minor and its borders, beginning with that outlying region that has the exceptional lot of living under Christian government.

TRANSCAUCASIA

Caucasia is the isthmus joining two continents, at one time separated by a strait which, north of the Caucasus range, connected the Sea of Azoff with the Caspian. As in the case of the Siberian frontier, the Russian Government does not recognize continental divisions, for its Caucasian province includes a stretch

both of Europe and Asia. Transcaucasia forms the southern half lying beyond the mountains, across which Russia began to press more than a century ago, making a difficult conquest of warlike mountain tribes, overrunning the kingdom of Georgia, encroaching upon Persia and Armenia, then, after the war of 1877, taking in a large slice of Turkish territory, that brings the Czar's dominion over the whole isthmus. The Ciscaucasian or European half of this province is about equal in size to Transcaucasia, each roughly 90,000 square miles; while the latter is the more thickly inhabited by a population estimated at some five millions.

Asia's natural border here is the "frosty Caucasus", for nearly eight hundred miles extending across the centre of the isthmus, then along the northern shore of the Black Sea. One link of the chain that almost continuously stretches over two continents, from the Pacific to the Atlantic, this range may be divided into three sections, the western much the lowest, and the central the highest, where like a continental watch-tower the double top of Mount Elbruz rises to the height of 18,500 feet, besides several other peaks exceeding any of the Alps, an array of giants "armed in cliff and ice". Between Asia and Europe it makes a lofty mountain wall, with very abrupt declivities, and sternly wild features that from earliest days have filled it with Titanic myths. Many of its peaks are above the limit of perpetual snow, though this here is from 10,000 to 12,000 feet; and many show traces of volcanic origin, revealed in the rich naphtha wells at either end, and the hot springs bubbling up on either side. There are few practicable gaps in this stupendous barrier; the only opening that gives a good road is the Dariel Pass, through those renowned "Caucasian Gates" overhung by the precipices of Mount Kasbek, where ancient imagination chained the daring Prometheus. The Mamisson Pass, to the west of this, winds through at a height of over 9000 feet; other openings are merely what mountaineers term "glacier passes". At the eastern end of the chain it has its broadest extent, 120 miles; and throughout it offers a spacious playground to Alpinists seeking new "peaks, passes, and glaciers" to conquer.[1]

[1] "The first feature that strikes the traveller is the singleness of the Caucasian compared to the Alpine chain. I do not mean that it is one long snowy wall, and nothing more. It is single contrasted with the Alps, in the same way that the Pennines are a single chain, although they possess spurs like the Weisshorn, and minor ranges like those that form the southern boundary of the Val Pelline. This characteristic is proved from the fact that, from elevated points north or south of it, the same summits are generally visible, whereas, as is well-known, the observer at Milan or Lucerne, Salzburg or Venice, sees from each an entirely different range of snowy summits. From this cause the panoramas seen on the highest peaks of the Caucasus differ from those of the Alps, in the fact that the portion of the horizon occupied by mountains is far less in the former than in the latter. Whether this is to be considered a recommendation or a fault must depend on individual taste; but no one can deny that if it had been desired to enhance by contrast the stern beauty and bold outlines of the central chain of the Caucasus, no better means of doing so could have been found than by putting beside them the boundless plains of the steppe, or the wave-like ridges of the Mingrelian Hills. . . . As a whole, Caucasian must, I think, rank above Alpine scenery. There is nothing in

THE KARAGOM GLACIER, CAUCASUS

The Karagom Glacier, in the Adai Khokh section of the Central Caucasus mountains, is one of the longest and most noteworthy among the many glaciers of the Caucasus system. It has an area of 14 square miles and a length of 10 miles, and at an elevation of 5700 feet above sea-level it gives rise to a head-stream of the river Terek. "The Adai Khokh group", says Freshfield, "resembles in several respects the Oberland, the Karagom corresponding roughly to the Aletsch Glacier", though much smaller. The Karagom Glacier is described by the same authority as "ringed on the east by a semicircle of lofty peaks, while to the west Burdjula stands comparatively isolated".

V Sella

KARAGOM GLACIER, CAUCASUS MOUNTAINS

The Georgians, every second man of whom is said to claim the title prince, are a lazy, swaggering people, who delight in wearing gay flowing garments and richly-ornamented weapons, a striking feature of native costume being a row of cartridge-cases sewn on to the breast of their tunics. This is worn even by little boys, whose fathers strut bristling in silver-mounted arms; and in the wilder mountain glens, men may be seen arrayed in suits of chain-armour, with round bucklers, such as have served them against ruder weapons than the guns now in every Georgian's hand. Among the Asiatics, the most thriving both in business and agriculture are the Armenians. Travellers have noted that the neatest and most prosperous-looking villages here turn out to belong to Russian or German dissenters, who have crossed the Caucasus to seek such freedom of worship as our Pilgrim Fathers found beyond the Atlantic. Other Russian inhabitants are chiefly soldiers and officials, little more ready to make their permanent home here than we in India; so that the Transcaucasian side of the isthmus is still very Asian in its civilization; and as yet the main benefit of European rule is greater security for life and property, under which industrial development grows up somewhat slowly.

We have found a traveller drawing strong contrast between a Persian and a Russian village, much to the advantage of the latter; yet this advantage is only comparative. Mr. Bryce well compares Russian civilization to a coat of paint over unseasoned wood. The Czar's government has had its hands too full with the task of subjugation to do much for the development of the country, which it is even accused of checking by a short-sighted commercial policy. Yet the province is rich in natural resources, in soil for fruit and corn, in forests along the foot of the Caucasus and on the western side of the cross range, but on its eastern plains rather in steppe pastures for the herds of nomad Kurds and Tartars. Wine, oil, and silk are produced; and Chinese coolies have been introduced for an experiment in cultivating tea, a native shrub here, hitherto imported for the popular beverage of Russian lands. Cotton and tobacco can be cultivated with success. Though here was the fabulous home of the Golden Fleece, precious metals have not been much manifest in modern times; but the hardly explored wilds of these great mountains are known to conceal iron, copper, coal, sulphur, if not other minerals; and at each end of the chain is a notable source of wealth in the petroleum that takes the place of coal, driving Russian engines into the centre of Asia. Rock-salt is another prosaic treasure. The fisheries of the Caspian are very productive. There are good breeds of cattle, horses, asses, mules, goats, and big-tailed sheep, as well as game in abundance. In the mountain glens are not yet exterminated panthers, wolves, bears, great bulls or bisons, and other fierce animals; the shy chamois herds on the icy heights along with the horned ibex; wild hogs lurk in the river-bed jungles; and in the hills about Lenkoran, on the Caspian shore, the tiger may still be killed so near the borders of Europe. One native of the Caucasus which has become very familiar to us is the pheasant, a name derived from the Phasis river, as *cherry* comes from Cerasus on the adjacent Black Sea coast, and *peach* is derived from Persia.

The main passage here from Europe into Asia goes through the Dariel Gorge, in the very centre of the chain, not yet threaded by a railway, but by a road of more than 100 miles, from Vladikavkaz, the chief place of Ciscaucasia, to Tiflis, the old capital of Georgia, now of Transcaucasia. Georgia has been

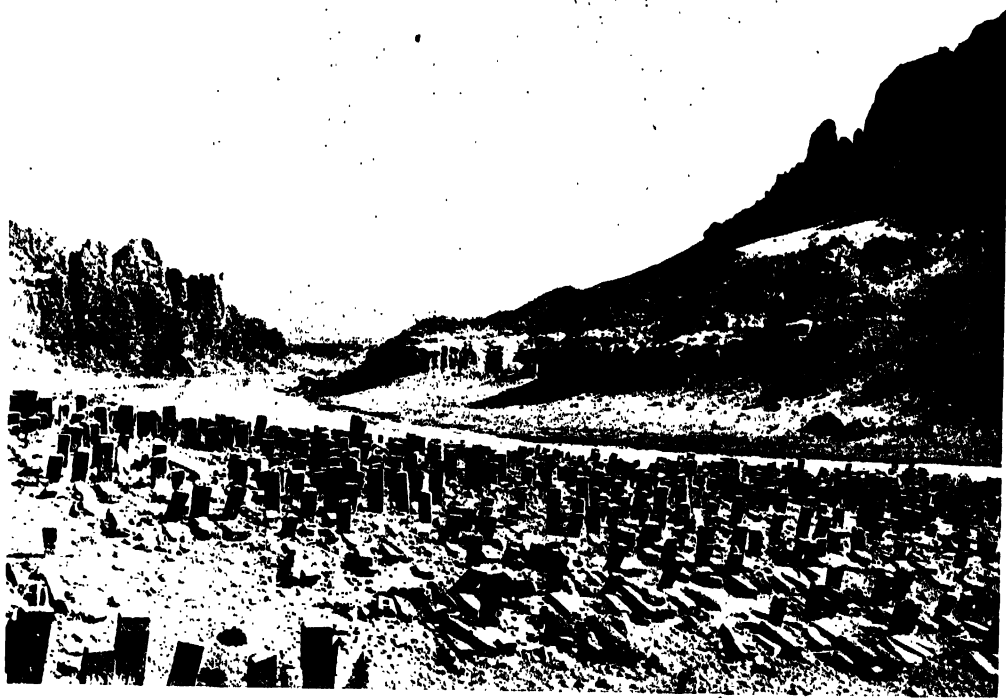
celebrated for the doll-like beauty of its women, yet a recent English traveller, who, according to other accounts, must have been hard to please, complains that, in more than a week's stay, he did not see a single pretty face among the people of Tiflis. There must at least be a great variety among its population of over 150,000, since we learn that newspapers are printed here in Russian, Georgian, Armenian, and Persian; and in its bazaars may be seen a lively swarm of Turks, Tartars, Turcomans, Greeks, Albanians, Jews, Arabs, Negroes, and Parsees, mingled among the country-folk in their gay dress. The city's own reputation for picturesqueness has by some visitors been judged an exaggeration; but it certainly occupies a fine situation on broken ground at the foot of snow-topped

Photo. D. Ermakow, Tiflis.

Nikolay Bridge, Tiflis

mountains. As in most Eastern cities dominated by Europeans, there is a great contrast between the old quarter of dirty crooked lanes winding among poor buildings of stone or mud, and the modern part with its broad boulevards, open squares, large public buildings, tramways, cafés, and notably the barracks of the Russian army that has its head-quarters at Tiflis. A striking prospect of the city is commanded from the ruined castle on a bold height, beneath which has been laid out a botanical garden. Other lions are the ancient Byzantine cathedral; a new Greek cathedral, the most striking structure of the place; the gorgeously decorated palace of the viceroy; the remarkable museum, with its local collections; and the "temple of fame" preserving trophies and memorials of Russia's valour in a difficult conquest. This is a place of considerable trade, and manufactures of cotton, silk, leather, weapons, silver ware, &c. As a token, perhaps, of European influence, Mr. Freshfield observed that the shopkeepers in the bazaar showed an eagerness to attract customers, unlike the air of dignified and sleepy indifference

passes the main road from Tabriz to Europe; and the streets are lively with travellers and traders of many neighbouring races. The Araxes Valley, in which the Armenians place the Garden of Eden, made an historic highway for ancient conquerors penetrating into Asia; and by it the railway is now to be continued from Erivan to the ferry by which the road at present crosses the frontier at Julfa, whose name and population we have seen bodily transferred to the large Armenian suburb of Ispahan.

To the south of Erivan, across the Aras, Mt. Ararat overlooks the meeting-place of Russian, Persian, and Turkish territory. This imposing mass consists of two peaks, connected by a ridge, the dome-like Great Ararat (16,900 feet) and

An ancient Armenian Burying-place at Julfa, in the Araxes Valley. (From a photograph.)

the cone of the Little Ararat (12,840), both of which, crowned with snow and cloud, riven by chasms and fissures, hoary from volcanic convulsions, rise among the surrounding heights with such isolated grandeur that this dominating mass is sacred and awful in the eyes of all the varying believers about its base.[1] Ararat has seemed, as in a sense it is, the central boss of the world. Long was it a

[1] "The noble thing about Ararat is not the parts, but the whole. I know nothing so sublime as the general aspect of this huge yet graceful mass seen from the surrounding plains; no view which fills the beholder with a profounder sense of grandeur and space than that which is unfolded when, on climbing its lofty side, he sees the far-stretching slopes beneath, and the boundless waste of mountains beyond spread out under his eye. The very simplicity, or even monotony, of both form and colour increases its majesty. One's eye is not diverted by a variety of points of interest: all the lines lead straight up to the towering, snowy summit; which is steep enough on the upper part to be beautiful, while its broad-spread base and rocky buttresses give it a sort of stately solidity. The colour is as simple as the form. From a gently-inclined pedestal of generally whitish hue, formed, as has been said, of volcanic sand and ashes, the steep slopes rise in a belt of green 5000 feet wide; above this is another zone of black volcanic rock, streaked with snow beds; highest of all, the cap of dazzling silver. At one glance the eye takes in all these zones of climate and vegetation from the sweltering plain to the icy pinnacle, ranging through more than 14,000 feet of vertical height. There can be but few other places in the world where so lofty a peak (17,000 feet) soars so suddenly from a plain so low, 2000 to 3000 feet above the sea, and consequently few views equally grand."—Mr. Bryce's *Transcaucasia and Ararat.*

Another well-known mountaineer, Mr. Douglas Freshfield, found comic aspects in the rocks that, on nearer

matter of faith in all Christian lands that Noah's Ark remained stranded on its mysterious top, as Armenians still believe, and pronounce Ararat to be inaccessible, though during the nineteenth century it was several times successfully ascended, notably by Mr. Bryce, for whom, as he stood alone on the hard-won summit, the mists for an instant rolled away, disclosing a view "immeasurably extensive and grand" over Armenia, that much-troubled land, which we must survey apart, without regard to political boundaries.

ARMENIA AND KURDISTAN

Armenia is now a name denoting a nation rather than the country, which, an Asian Poland, has been divided between the three neighbouring powers: Turkey, Russia, and Persia; and the fate of its people might be compared to that of the Jews, as well as of the Poles. This people, of Iranian origin, believe themselves to be descended from Haik, a grandson of Japhet, who had not far to wander from Noah's first settlement after the Deluge. The nation comes into historical light centuries before Christ, when it is seen overpowered by Alexander and other conquerors, then recovering an independence defended by its king Tigranes, son-in-law of Mithridates, against Pompey and Lucullus. Early in our era it accepted Christianity, and became a doughty champion of the faith among surrounding unbelievers. Its palmy time seems to have been under the Bagratian dynasty, who claimed descent from King David, and are still represented among the Russian nobility. Their kingdom was submerged in the flood of Moslem conquest sweeping towards Constantinople; the last nominal king died in exile at the end of the fourteenth century. For long the Armenians have been an oppressed dependent people, held together by their religion, and by their language, akin to Persian, an obsolete form of which is preserved by their sacred and other ancient writings; yet, like the Jews, they have often been fain in ordinary intercourse to adopt or to borrow from the tongue of those around them.

The creed which makes the strongest bond of Armenian national life is an independent version of the Christian faith. Differing from the Greek Church mainly on the Monophysitic controversy decided by the Council of Chalcedon (A.D. 451), it holds that there is only one nature in Christ, and that the Holy Spirit proceeds from the Father alone. In addition to this heresy, the Armenian Church keeps various peculiarities of doctrine and discipline, not so alien to Greek Christianity as to European Protestantism. It has a married priesthood, but from its celibate monks is chosen the episcopal hierarchy, culminating in the Catholicos, whose Vatican is the monastery of Etchmiadzin near Mount Ararat. Under him comes an imposing array of patriarchs, archbishops, and bishops, many of whom are mere titular prelates like the dignitaries of the Papal Court. As in the case of the Grand Lama, it appears that the subordinate patriarchs sometimes show a disposition to question the supremacy of the Catholicos. One schism, indeed, mars the unity of Armenianism. A considerable minority, including most of the wealthy and intelligent Armenians settled at Con-

acquaintance, go far to justify the local belief that the summit is inaccessible—"disconnected crags of lava, suggesting by their fantastic shapes that half the animals, after leaving the Ark, had been petrified as they came down the mountain".

stantinople, have attached themselves to the Latin Church, while retaining their own rites and traditions, and their Patriarch at Constantinople is in communion with Rome, which has vainly courted the allegiance of the main body. A branch of this schismatic church, settled at a monastery on the Venetian island of San Lazaro, has done good service to Armenianism by treasuring and publishing its ancient documents, one of which, it may be remembered, Lord Byron amused himself by helping to translate. The Armenian Bible includes several apocryphal scriptures not accepted by the Catholic Church; and some of the monasteries contain a collection of old manuscripts which might throw light on Christian origins, if they were not in the hands of such incompetent and superstitious scholars as the native clergy usually are, nor much distinguished for practical piety, though in this respect, it is said, the upper ranks of the priesthood set a better example. Before leaving the subject of religion, it should be mentioned that a certain number of Armenians have been converted to Protestantism by the diligent labour of missionaries, chiefly American, who find the spiritual state of the native Christians far from satisfactory. It has been said that the ill-will between Turk and Christian here is faint compared with that of differently professing Christians to each other; but of late all Armenians seem to have been drawn together in sympathy by the cruel persecution attending a revival of their national aspirations.

Estimates of this people, driven and dispersed as it has long been, must be vague; but it is believed that they have dwindled to between two and three millions at the most, not half of them remaining in their native land, where the larger proportion are under Turkish rule, the rest, with the exception of some tens of thousands in Persia, being Russian subjects. In European Turkey, notably at Constantinople, are settled nearly a tenth part of the whole nation, and a smaller number are found in other ports of the East and even of the West, where they have often gained wealth by their keen activity as traders and usurers. Though Armenia has no coast-line of its own, Turkish steamers are often run by Armenian owners and manned by Armenian crews. An Armenian in Eastern commerce bears much the same reputation as the Jew in Europe, cunning frugality and patient industry having been forced upon them both by their persecuted condition among masters inferior in all but strength; yet the Armenians, as the Jews, are distinguished by liberality towards the less prosperous members of their race. At home, where their main occupation is husbandry, and where only here and there do they form a majority of the inhabitants, they have been ground down into such an abject state that travellers are apt to praise the well-mannered Osmanli Turk above these poor Christians whom he forces to cheatery by hectoring and robbery. Among the Turks they have learned to keep their women in a certain seclusion; and still more careful are they to hide any signs of wealth acquired by the laborious toil in which they give a lesson to their masters. As might be expected, dirt, ignorance, timidity, and superstition are the main characteristics of Armenian life that strike a stranger's eye; yet there is a promise of better things in the persistency with which they have so long clung to their Christian fellow-citizenship among alien tyrants, who keep pressing in among them, while they themselves have straggled over into neighbouring lands, searching for the peaceful welfare denied them at home.[1]

[1] Mr. H. F. B. Lynch, author of the latest and one of the largest books on Armenia, inclines to a more favourable view of the national character, especially insisting on its quality of "grit".

To define a country which has no political existence is almost as difficult as to enumerate a scattered people. At one time Armenia's bounds were wider, but now the name is taken for an area, about equal to that of England, in the north-eastern corner behind Asia Minor, between the Caucasus and the Taurus systems, drained by the upper waters of the Aras and the Euphrates, which latter stream made the ancient division of Armenia Major and Armenia Minor. Its surface is mainly a continuation of the Persian table-land, here also enclosed by

Great Ararat and Little Ararat. (See page 136.)

arcs of mountain-wall within which the high plains are corrugated by volcanic elevations and deep-cut water-courses.

The altitude of this plateau, often above any British mountain-top, gives it a very severe winter climate, followed by extreme summer heat. Deep snow lies long in winter upon heights whose hollows may at another season be pestilential fever traps; and the rough mountain passes make travelling difficult or even perilous for much of the year. Well-watered basins are fertile in grain and fruit, while the poorer slopes support goats and big-tailed sheep, herded rather by intruding Kurds or other Mohammedans than by the agricultural Armenian peasantry. Wood is in many parts so rare, that for fuel the inhabitants are reduced to a preparation of dung mixed with chopped straw and dried on the flat tops of their houses, which even in cities are often half-burrowed underground or backed against a slope and covered up on all sides but one, the roof scarcely raised above the surface, so that in the deep snow one may walk over the top of a house without knowing it. In such a semi-subterranean abode, sometimes of great extent, an Armenian family will spend the winter chiefly in the largest apartment,

used as a stable, where the breath of the cattle helps to keep them warm. Even in a rich man's house the cows and horses are as much at home as the pig in an Irish hovel; and it is the curious custom in this part of the world to keep a fat sheep, sometimes a young boar, in every stable as a companion for horses. Mules and asses are much used as beasts of burden, also camels, that in winter must be fed by hand, but in summer pick up a livelihood by grazing upon the coarse, prickly herbage beside the wild roads, on which they spend more time in browsing than in getting forward.

Even in richer spots an Armenian village commonly wears a wretched look; and the inhabitants match their houses. "Their usual dress is a sort of long, wadded, cotton dressing-gown, slit up at the sides so as to make it form an apron behind and before, old baggy-kneed trousers, very short and dirty, a fez, or oftener a bare, shaggy, uncombed head, and, to finish all, feet thrust into slippers the heels of which are nowhere." So reports Mr. H. C. Barkley, who describes the ground about the houses as "poached up into a lake of black mud some 18 inches deep; and often the only dry spot in the villages is the large manure-heap, whereon squat the elders of the community, surrounded by children, dogs, cows, sheep, and ponies, all looking more than half-starved". Another visitor to such homes observed that "if a farmer wished to pay a visit to a neighbour across the way, he simply tucked up his dressing-gown under his arm-pits, took off his slippers, broad trousers, and stockings, then, committing himself to Providence, he would wade through the dirt to his friend's house".

As in most parts of Asiatic Turkey, the domestic animals are stunted both by a hard life and by want of care in breeding; and in general Armenia is not well off even for wild beasts, though these include several species, from big bears to the tiny lemming. It is richer in birds of many kinds. Mr. R. Curzon declares that he has seen the country coloured for miles by countless flocks of a kind of red goose, and whitened with great patches of the gray goose; then he makes a sportsman's mouth water by enumeration of herons, bustards, cranes, quails "thick as flies", partridges, and other game preyed on by falcons and hawks; while the stork builds among the chimneys of the houses, with the irrepressible sparrow quartered upon his roomy nest as a thievish lodger. The mountain streams swarm with trout and other fish, though some of the deep lakes seem to be lifeless. Among the poverty of mountain vegetation the same writer notes some remarkably beautiful flowers, such as one called in Turkish "Seven Brothers' Blood" (*Philippia coccinea*), which grows like a lily, with bloom, stalk and all, resembling crimson velvet, as a parasite upon wormwood, often in company with a kind of thistle bearing honeysuckle-like flowers all up its stem. Another plant found here (*Anthemis rosea*) should be very useful in Armenia, as, when reduced to powder, this has the property of killing or stupefying fleas and other vermin that swarm upon the fierce dogs, for which strangers often have cause to wish extermination.

Of Armenian customs, too, it is not easy to speak, modified as they are to some extent by alien laws and surroundings. The centre of the national life is in Russian territory, by the valley of the Aras, that, in its course to the Caspian, has hollowed out the deepest depression of these highlands. Here, below the huge volcanic mass of Ala Goz, to the north of Mount Ararat, the Catholicos has his seat at Etchmiadzin, in what claims to be the oldest of monasteries. As in Russia, monasteries serve as palaces for Armenian prelates; and this one includes

within its *enceinte* of a mile quarters for guests as well as monks, and for the clerical dignitaries who attend on the Catholicos, also a seminary for young men, and a bazaar for dealing in the produce of the monastery lands, in short a little town, the nucleus of which is the cathedral believed to have been founded by St. Gregory, the "Illuminator" of Armenia. There is an ancient library of books and manuscripts which might repay examination; but what the monks have treasured more is their collection of priceless relics, such as a fragment of Noah's Ark, the head of the spear that pierced Christ's side, and a mummied hand supposed to be that of St. Gregory, which still acts in the consecration of the patriarch. The superstitious features of Armenian religion are much in the fore-

Armenian Peasant Women weaving Turkish Carpets

ground here; but a printing-press is at work as a regenerating influence, and Mr. Lynch declares that the transformation of this vast cloister "from a residence of ignorant monks into a seat of education, the home of cultured men, is proceeding year by year", fostered by endowments from wealthy Armenians in all parts of the world. The capital of Armenia, that with the old name Vagarshapat stood here at the date of its conversion, has dwindled into a village; but of Ani, a later capital on a tributary of the Aras, towards Kars, extensive and well-preserved remains, all the more striking from the present desolation in which they stand hidden, bear witness to the magnificence overthrown by Turkish invasion.

Erivan, a little to the east of Etchmiadzin, seems now supplanted by Alexandropol as the citadel of Russian Armenia. Lower down the valley of the Aras, Nakhitchevan contests with Erivan a claim to be Noah's first settlement after the flood, and the strong wine of this region is held to explain a weakness recorded of that venerable sire. Keeping up the course of the Aras we pass from Russian into Turkish Armenia, soon recognized not by any change in the mountainous country, but by the greater misery of the people. Erzeroum, the capital of this

province, shows the same mixture of races as at Erivan, Mohammedans here predominating, and the Armenian Christians belong rather to the Latin communion than to their own independent church. The city, of some 40,000 inhabitants, stands upon irregular ground at the foot of bold, snow-clad mountains, in a plain several thousand feet above the sea, a situation which gives it a very severe winter climate. Its most striking buildings are the Pasha's palace, and the mosques, tombs, and colleges of Moslem devotion. Many of the houses being wholly or partly subterranean, it appears when snowed up in winter "like a great rabbit-warren", out of which rise the antiquated fortifications of the town and its citadel. From it run roads eastward to Persia, to Georgia by Kars, over the northern watershed to Trebizond on the Black Sea, and westward to Erzingan.

We are now in the basin of the Euphrates, whose western branch, as it is called, though northern would be a more fitting name, flows from above Erzeroum to Erzingan, cradle of Armenian Christianity, a once flourishing city that has come down to be little more than a Turkish military station, displaying its fortifications on a flat which is "a dust-heap in summer and a mud-lake in winter". The surrounding plain is ruined by stones poured over it by the snow-swollen torrents from mountain masses, on whose sides may bloom little oases of habitation; but more often the jagged heights, riven and broken by earthquakes, show no green thing but stunted pines fringing their abysses, above which lonely convents and villages are perched like eagles' nests, out of the way of robber incursions that help the forces of nature to keep this region desolate. Through such stern highlands the "Black Water", as it is locally called, forces its way to the edge of Turkish Armenia, then turns abruptly south, at the south-west corner of the province taking in the Murad or eastern branch, that has flowed parallel with it from the mountain-wall of Russian Armenia. Between these two streams the Aras takes its rise, running in the other direction; and the involved course of the rivers here gives almost as clear an idea of how the ground is wrinkled by mountain chains as any representation of their relief. On the right bank of the western Euphrates, Armenia Minor now belongs to the Turkish province of Sivas, whose capital of the same name stands on the Irmak, the ancient Halys, separated by high mountains from the Euphrates basin.

Among these stern mountains lie plains enriched by Armenian industry, and towns which are only in part of Armenian population. Several of them became scenes of riotous slaughter in the massacres that a few years ago repeated such atrocities as have been too frequent where Christians lived helpless among fanatical Islamites, but this time, almost within the hearing of Christendom, its ears and eyes sharpened by closer intercourse with the East, and especially through reports of Protestant missionaries labouring to elevate the poor Christianity of this people.[1] Not far from where the Euphrates turns southward to break

[1] Professor and Mrs. Harris, who bravely travelled through the ravaged country while these scenes were being enacted, give heart-rending pictures of the misery which their task was to relieve. One of the statistical tables quoted by them is perhaps more eloquent than pages of denunciation.

"STATISTICS FOR PALU AND ITS FORTY-THREE VILLAGES.

Armenian houses	2074	Wounded	513
Number of Armenians	14,878	Families converted	474
Houses plundered	2059	Individuals converted	3181
Houses burned	755	Individuals circumcised	603
Houses destroyed afterwards	259	Kidnapped girls	43
Killed	900	Kidnapped women	152

through under the colossal crests of the Taurus, Eghin is the "most surprising of romantic little cities, buried amid its surrounding mountains in a sea of verdure, which yet rises terrace upon terrace high up one mountain slope", with flights of stairs for streets like an Asian Clovelly, distinguished by Von Moltke as the most grand and beautiful place he saw in this region. Here, out of a Christian population of 5000 or 6000, some third were killed among the ruins that blackened their mountain oasis. Farther down, on a wide plain opening from the right bank, is Malatia, which Professor Rendel Harris for his part judged the most beautiful city he saw in Asiatic Turkey, one of 40,000 people, also buried in gardens, where similar cruelties were worked. This place is perhaps best known to Europe by Von Moltke's letters from it when he served as neglected adviser to the Turkish army, defeated by Ibrahim Pasha on the borders of Armenia.

Where the mountains close in again begins the formidable series of cataracts, three hundred in number, by which over a reach of 60 miles the river descends through deep gorges to the Mesopotamian plains. "These rapids", describes Von Moltke, who descended them on a whirling raft, "are always at the point where a little torrent falls into the stream. In the course of ages larger or smaller fragments of rock have fallen from the gorge, forming at the torrent's mouth a little promontory that narrows the main channel; then also large boulders have often rolled into the river-bed, emerging when the water is low, but in flood covered by the waves, to which they oppose an invincible resistance. The river, restricted and thrown out of its course, flings itself against these obstacles, breaks into a spreading mass above them, and beyond into a whirling and foaming current. . . . Hardly has such a cataract been passed than one already hears the roaring of the next."

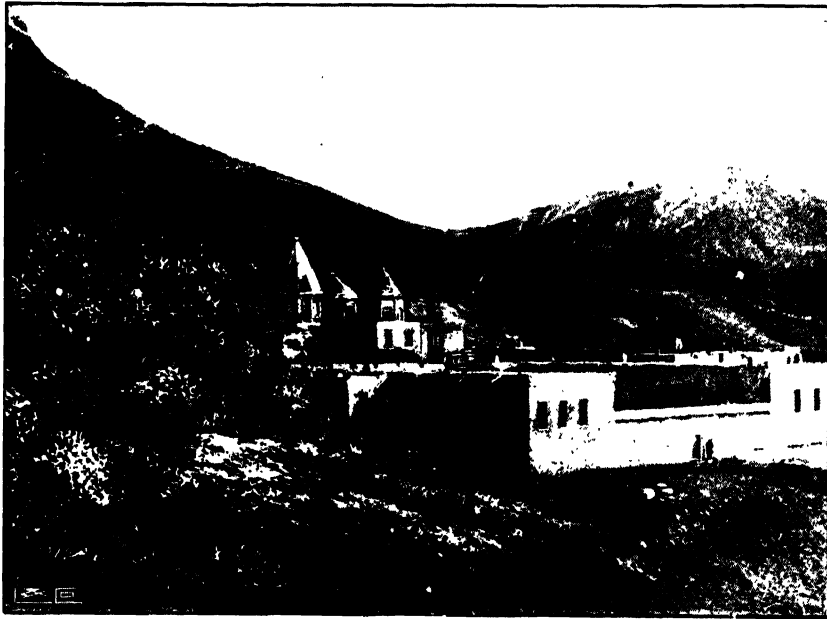
Returning upwards on the left bank, to the south of the Eastern Euphrates, we find another fertile plain which has Kharput as its chief town, while the official centre is at Mezreh, a smaller place not far off, that along with a cluster of neighbouring villages makes up a population of 50,000. Near the confluence of the two branches are lead and silver mines, worked at various disadvantages in want of fuel, of transport, and of machinery, besides the blight of bad government. The colouring of the rocks in the mountain gorges often show them to be full of minerals. On the Tigris, to the south, are the richest copper-mines of Turkey in Asia, the output of which is restricted by the same hindrances. Salt and sulphur, alum and naphtha are got from the volcanic mountains around Lake Van, to the east, between which and the Euphrates lies another fertile valley about Mush, the "Cashmere of Armenia", in part spoiled by swamps, and girdled by the fastnesses of the Kurds, that are to the helpless Armenians what wolves are to sheep.

Near Lake Van, the largest in Turkish territory, rises what is sometimes styled the eastern branch of the Tigris, that has another source close to the stream

Girls married to Turks	29	Churches destroyed	44
Women married to Turks	21	Monasteries destroyed	2
Girls returned	16	Schools destroyed	37
Women returned	92	Ecclesiastics killed	16

"This list does not include those who died from fear and exposure. The kidnapping represents but a small part of the violence done to women."

The Turks themselves admit a list of some 30,000 slain all over Asia Minor and Armenia, where not less than half a million of victims were killed, outraged, or left destitute.

of the United Euphrates, which it is to join far below on the Mesopotamian plain. Lake Van is a closed basin of alkaline water, nearly 80 miles long, 5600 feet above the sea, shut in by snow-clad and volcanic mountains, which on the east side separate it from the Persian Lake Urumia, and to the north form the ancient Niphates, where Milton makes Satan alight on his baleful mission. Near the south-eastern corner stands the ancient city of Van, with its doubtful memories of Semiramis, and mysterious tombs and inscriptions on the bold cliff from which its citadel looks over a stretch of gardens and poplar avenues between the town and the lake.[1] This was once a centre of Armenian culture, and is still the most Armenian part of Turkish Armenia. Of its population (about 30,000) the majority

Armenian Monastery, Varak, near Van

are Armenians reduced to poverty by earthquakes and by the depredations of their Kurdish neighbours. Kurds are in the majority at Bitlis, to the other side of the lake, which Mrs. Bishop calls the most romantically-situated place she had seen in Western Asia, where gigantic ruins of its fortress look down from precipitous heights on the rushing cataracts of the Eastern Tigris, flowing from the eastern

[1] Mrs. Bishop compares the southern shores of Lake Van to the Italian Riviera. "Art aids nature, and there are grand old monasteries on promontories, and Kurdish castles on heights, and flashing streams and booming torrents are bridged by picturesque pointed arches. There are 150 monasteries in this region, and the towers of St. George, at the mountain village of Narek, high on a rocky spur, above one of the most beautiful of the many wooded valleys which descend upon the lake of Van, lend an air of mediaeval romance to a scene as fair as nature can make it. Nearly all the romantic valleys opening on the lake are adorned with one or more villages, with houses tier above tier in their rocky clefts, and terrace below terrace of exquisite cultivation below, of the vivid velvety green of winter wheat. Their terraces often 'hang' above green sward and noble walnut-trees. Occasionally the villages are built at the foot of the mountains, on small plateaux above steep-sided bays, and are embosomed in trees glowing with colour, from canary-yellow to crimson and madder-red, and mountains snow-crested and forest-skirted tower over all. Lake Van, bluer than the blue heavens, with its huge volcanic heights—Sipan Dagh, Nimrud Dagh, and Varak Dagh, and their outlying ranges —its deep-green bays and quiet-wooded inlets; its islets, some like the Bass Rock, others monastery-covered; its pure-green shadows and violet depths; its heavy boats with their V-shaped sails; and its auburn oak-covered slopes, adds its own enchantment, and all is as fair as fair can be."

Mr. Lynch, who also extols the "ineffable beauty of Lake Van", and Dr. Oswald have mapped out the extinct volcano Nimrud Dagh at the west end (nearly 10,000 feet), and the still higher Sipan Dagh above the north shore. The great Nimrud crater is nearly 5 miles in diameter, half-filled by a deep lake.

summit of the Taurus. The population, about equal to that of Van, is fiercely fanatical and turbulent; but here, as at Van and at Kharput, a settlement of American missionaries strives to raise the Christians debased by ignorance and persecution, rather than to convert the Kurds, who make a virtue of despoiling these infidels.

Kurdistan is a name still less easy to limit than Armenia, with which it seems inextricably confused. It may be roughly defined as the mountain region south of the Armenian table-land, on the west side of Persia; but the wandering Kurds, too, fierce and lawless as when Xenophon's army fought its way through them to the sea, have pushed beyond their old boundaries, and are found mixed up with the Armenians, and even within the borders of Transcaucasia and Anatolia. For

Kurds weaving Carpets

the most part they are Mohammedans, whose strongest point of religion is hatred for all other creeds; but their women go unveiled, nor is this the only respect in which they show themselves independent of Moslem custom. To the women falls most of the hard work, yet they have not such an inferior position as in Persian harems; and a Kurd at least holds his wife as equal in value to his best horse. The industry of the tribesmen is pastoral rather than agricultural, so that in this respect they and their more peaceful neighbours reverse the parts of Cain and Abel. For centuries the Armenians have been harried and plundered by the wild Kurds, whom the Turks now make fitful efforts to restrain, then again use them as agents of oppression against the Christians. The Armenians pay a tax in lieu of military service, but the Kurds supply the Turkish army with irregular cavalry, auxiliaries who are said to have had a chief hand in the recent Armenian massacres. The same kind of oppression has been chronic, with more or less intensity, the Kurds pushing their ravages almost up to the walls of Erzeroum and Erzingan, while southward they are checked by the Bedouins, foemen more of their own temper. The Kurds are better able to ruin towns than to build them; their

homes are filthy hovels, often half below ground, as in the days of Xenophon, or smoke-begrimed goat's-hair tents, unless where some chief has built himself a robber's nest on a rocky eyrie, under protection of which may be found orchards and fields of grain, grass, flax. Their best manufactures are weapons and carpets woven from the wool of their goats; and they also contrive to provide themselves with clothes of wool, cotton, and even silk, as with leather and pottery. Though some of them still carry long lances and heavy clubs, or maces, for the most part they go well armed with modern rifles, whereas the timid Armenians are either unarmed, or have only a few unserviceable guns to guard their villages, and the mountain sheepfolds that must often be watched all night in dread of frequent raids from those bad neighbours.

The two races sometimes exchange their usual occupations; then such Kurds as do settle down to tillage seem to degenerate from the savage virtues that thrive among more or less independent hill tribes, whose fierceness is least tamed on the mountainous debatable land along the Persian and Turkish frontier, and in the inaccessible Dersim highlands of the Euphrates. Those admitted to their courteous hospitality dwell on the picturesque features of the country and of its haughty chieftains, whose costume in one district is described as a pointed silk cap with gay scarfs wound about it, a silk tunic belted by a sash about a white linen shirt with sleeves hanging down in points a yard long, over this again a thick felt jacket that serves as armour, then baggy white trousers drawn in at the ankle, over socks of coloured wool and pointed slippers of red leather or embroidered cloth. Well-filled cartridge-cases are worn across the breast, and they lavish silver and even jewels on the ornamentation of their weapons. Secure travellers in the haunts of these mountain dandies have found other points for admiration in their courage, hardihood, haughty frankness, and family morals; but by those who have to live near them they are regarded as Roderick Dhu or Rob Roy were by lowland farmers, with a dread and resentment here exasperated through religious feeling. The Kurds, indeed, may make much the same excuse as Gaelic blackmailers, for they seem to be the original inhabitants of the highlands where once more they spread out to claim their own with the strong hand. Not that the Armenians can be called lowlanders, their country being characteristically a lofty table-land, on which are dotted peaks rising as high as 13,000 feet; but the Kurds belong rather to that more compact mass of mountains on the south-east, from which the Taurus runs off into Asia Minor. All the tribes of this stock are believed to number some three millions, not half of whom inhabit what is commonly called Kurdistan.

In the border mountains of Persia, too, the Kurds prove troublesome neighbours, who in 1880 ravaged the north-western corner of the country, and still make travelling through their wild passes an adventurous exploit. Before the Russian conquest of Turkestan, Kurdish tribes were settled in Khorassan to defend its frontiers against the wild Turcomans, but the effect was much as if wolves had been employed for sheep-dogs. No religious sympathy restrains the Kurds on this side, for they are Sunnites, between whom and the Persian Shiahs glows a hatred as bitter as, or more so than between Christian and Moslem. More than one section of the Kurdish stock, indeed, cherishes a peculiar religion. Yezidis is the name of one such body which has its seat in certain mountain districts about the Tigris. Their faith appears to be a variety of Mohammedanism, which, among other heresies, treats Satan as not past redemption, a tenet that has

earned them the title of "devil worshippers", and brought upon them fierce opprobrium from all sides. They, for their part, have been persecuted, in some parts almost exterminated, by the Turks; yet by some unprejudiced witnesses these sectaries of the devil are declared to be more friendly, peaceful, and industrious than any other Kurds. "By their fruits ye shall know them" is a text that has little honour in Oriental orthodoxy. Another sect, strong among mountaineers to the south of Kurdistan, is the Ali-Ilahists, sometimes called "Davidites", from their veneration for King David, who are believed to have a Jewish basis for their hybrid faith, eked out by Moslem and Christian influences; they have even been identified with the lost Ten Tribes. Then the largest and most widely-spread body of sectaries is the Kizil Bashis, or "Red Heads", who hold together in certain parts of Persia and Asia Minor, outwardly Mohammedans, but cherishing peculiar tenets and observances, which they do not willingly communicate to strangers. They call themselves "Old Turks", and are believed to be of a Turki stock, who, perhaps, have preserved some features of paganism coloured by the Shiah faith; they are said to be less bitterly hostile to Christians than the more orthodox tribes. What with back-waters of Christianity and of Islamism, in the hills about the Tigris could be enumerated some two dozen forms of hostile fanaticism.[1]

A Typical Kurd

The characteristic attitude of Kurds being "agin the government", they are found most fiercely Sunnite on the Persian side, while in Turkey many of them cherish the mysterious faith associated with the name Kizil Bashis. This is the case with the tribes who have their seat in the Dersim, a mass of impenetrable mountains in the fork of the two Euphrates branches, fortified by bastions of black

[1] It would be beyond our scope to sift out all the sects into which Mohammedanism as well as Christianity has differentiated itself in Asia; but here seems the place to mention some smaller and more obscure Christian Churches that survive beside that of Armenia. The Nestorians have now their chief seat in the mountains between Lake Van and Lake Urumia, where they hold out in well-watered valleys drained by the Great Zab into the Tigris; they are also found scattered southwards into Mesopotamia, and eastward across the Persian frontier, beyond which we have seen traces of them in Central Asia, and as far off as China and India. This once widely-spread community has dwindled to numbers of which 200,000 is the highest estimate. They are understood to derive their doctrines from Nestorius, who in the fifth century made a schism as to the divine and human nature of Christ; but they themselves repudiate connection with this heresiarch, and some writers have taken the name to be a corruption of Nazarene. They reject confession and the worship of images. Their priests marry and act as patriarchal rulers of the flourishing villages, defended by their mountain seclusion, where, in dress, manners, and morals, they resemble their Kurdish neighbours. These form the main body, whose head is an hereditary patriarch, seated at Kochanes, between Lakes Van and Urumia; but, like the Armenian Church, the Nestorian has suffered schism, one branch having grafted itself on the Roman Church, under a patriarch at Mosul, while another, with a separate patriarch at Baghdad, is said to assert independence as the old Chaldæan Church. Accounts of these divisions seem a little confused and contradictory, but agree in claiming no high share of Christian graces for Nestorian believers, upon whom Protestant and Catholic missionaries see cause to push their work of conversion. The dark underground churches, in which for many centuries they have been able to hide their sacred books from ever-threatening foes, at least have nursed the merit of faithful consistency.

The Jacobite Church is another body of perhaps the same doubtful numbers, found scattered over Mesopotamia and

rock and glacier moats, with passes 9000 feet above the sea as the only gates to a natural stronghold, round which the Turks have built a ring of forts; but when some years ago a military force entered it to collect tribute, not a man came back to tell how the Kurds crushed them with rocks from overhanging crags, as the followers of Bruce or the Tyrolese peasants defended their native bulwarks. The tamest Kurds are, of course, those who have given away their independence by settling on accessible plains. On the other hand, the usually peaceful Armenians have here and there in secluded nooks preserved that warlike spirit which of old made them a formidable power. About the Cilician end of the Taurus an Armenian state for a time held more than its own among the general welter of Moslem conquest. As a remnant of this, perhaps, Zeitoun, in a valley of the Taurus behind the Levantine plains, to the north of Marash, remained a notable Armenian stronghold up to our own day. This "town of olives" had some dozen or score thousand people, who, raised above the fate of their oppressed kinsmen, long maintained a bold independence under their bishop and chiefs, making themselves, indeed, a plague to the country by Kurdish-like brigandage. The assertion of Turkish supremacy brought about a series of combats and insurrections, in the last of which (1895) Zeitoun was gallantly defended against a large army, and its subdual cost the Turk perhaps as many lives as at that period made up the wholesale massacres by which the name of Armenia is sorrowfully known.

MESOPOTAMIA

In dealing with the Turkish domains of Asia, we have already seen how hard it is to draw closely either historical or ethnographic boundaries. As Armenia merges with Kurdistan, so the latter loses this name on the south-west side, where its mountain masses fall to the great basin of the Euphrates and the Tigris. This is the ancient Mesopotamia—"land between the rivers" —a region of deep interest as the cradle of recorded history, if not of civilization. Here was the home of that Accadian race dimly identified with the Chaldees. Here rose the great Assyrian and Babylonian powers, whose ruins to-day seem mocking monuments of historic fame. Here the proud Roman empire found its bounds in the mountain walls of Parthia. Here flowed one tide of conquest after another, overthrowing the shapes of former dominion and confusing the original elements of population. Poor, oppressed, dismantled of its glory,

Syria. Their peculiar tenet, derived like their name from Jacobus, a Syrian monk of Justinian age, is the monophysite nature of Christ, in which they agree with the Coptic, Abyssinian, and Armenian Churches. They also have divided, one branch, which in ritual and other respects is akin to the Greek Church, owning as its head the titular Patriarch of Antioch, whose seat is now Diarbekir, while in Syria a rival patriarch leads those who have come into communion with Rome; and this latter branch is said to be increasing at the expense of the other.

The Sabians, or Mandæans, now found settled chiefly on the Lower Euphrates and in the south-west corner of Arabia, hardly deserve the Christian name. They call themselves Christians of St. John the Baptist, and make much use of water in baptism and other ceremonial purifications, but their belief seems to be a medley of other creeds, in which the Baptist figures as the chief manifestation of the divine. Another sect called Syrian Sabians, that took its rise in Mesopotamia and is now extinct, appears to have been a still more feebly-tinctured heathenism.

The Lebanon is the fortress of the Maronites, whose founder, Maron, also spun metaphysical cobwebs as to the nature of Christ; and his warlike followers have been able to defend their traditions for centuries, though in our time hard pressed by their unbelieving neighbours the Druses. While maintaining a certain degree of spiritual independence, they have sought protection in the Roman fold, which all over this region vies with the Greek Church in endeavouring to gather in those wandering sheep.

this arena for so many resounding scenes is now shared among the Turkish provinces of Mosul, Baghdad, and Aleppo. Its inhabitants are a mongrel mixture, among whom we find Armenians and other Christians, Kurds and Turks, with a fresh element in Arabs who have pressed out of the neighbouring peninsula. A strain of Jewish blood appears to have been absorbed, which is said to be still discernible about Babylon; there are also Jews in the towns of northern Mesopotamia. The lower part of the double valley where the two rivers draw together is known to the natives as Irak-Arabi, the upper and broader extent between the Tigris and the Euphrates as El Jezireh or the Island, these answering roughly to the ancient Babylonia and Assyria, each of which in turn extended themselves far beyond their original bounds.

Sloping downwards from the Taurus, enclosed between the mountain border of Syria to the west, and of Persia to the east, a vast basin, once the head of the Persian Gulf, has been filled in by soil deposited on it through ages, much of this naturally fertile, which in bygone days nourished enormous populations, but for want of tillage and irrigation wide stretches have degenerated into desert wastes or swamps. The undulating upper plains are edged by stony, treeless slopes, and broken by volcanic cones and craggy heights and ridges. A most unlovely prospect opens on the gradual descent to the valley of the Tigris, as described by Mr. Baillie Fraser. "One's reason refused to be persuaded that the wide tracts of gravel and black earthy hillocks that lay stretched around us, with rocks protruding from their sides and summits, intersected with dry ravines, all obviously unproductive, save of a scanty pasturage, could ever have been the theatre of those mighty events which history relates, where hosts of innumerable warriors struggled for victory and empire." And even when one comes down from scorched deserts, realm of the proud Semiramis and the luxurious Sardanapalus, to the alluvial flats upon the river banks, their exuberant vegetation is often found blighted by the sloth and corruption that go with Turkish government. Among the naked mountains, too, are hidden fertile hollows and oasis nooks. Mr. Rich describes one such as "embosomed in a wood of the finest walnut-trees I ever saw. Gardens, vineyards, and cultivation surrounded the village in every available spot on the sides of the mountains. The vines in many places crept up the trees and extended from one to another, forming festoons and drapery. Multitudes of springs burst from the sides of the hills, and dashed over the roots of the trees in innumerable little cascades."

The Euphrates has a crooked course of about 1750 miles, through a basin estimated at 260,000 square miles. As we saw, it is formed by two branches rising in the mountains of Armenia, at first flowing westward, then uniting to break southward through the Taurus walls of ancient Assyria. Having forced its way by hundreds of cataracts boiling under black basaltic cliffs into the upper plains of Mesopotamia, it becomes navigable at Biredjik or Bir, an ancient city that, like so many others in this harassed land, clusters at the foot of a romantic rock citadel. The ordinary channel of the river here is about 150 yards wide, but its floods fill a bed more than ten times as broad. To the east of this place, on a tributary, is Orfa or Urfa, in early Christian days renowned as Edessa, and farther back as that "Ur of the Chaldees" from which Abraham set forth to the land of Canaan. A beautiful mosque upon the banks of a sacred lake bears the patriarch's name, revered by Moslem as

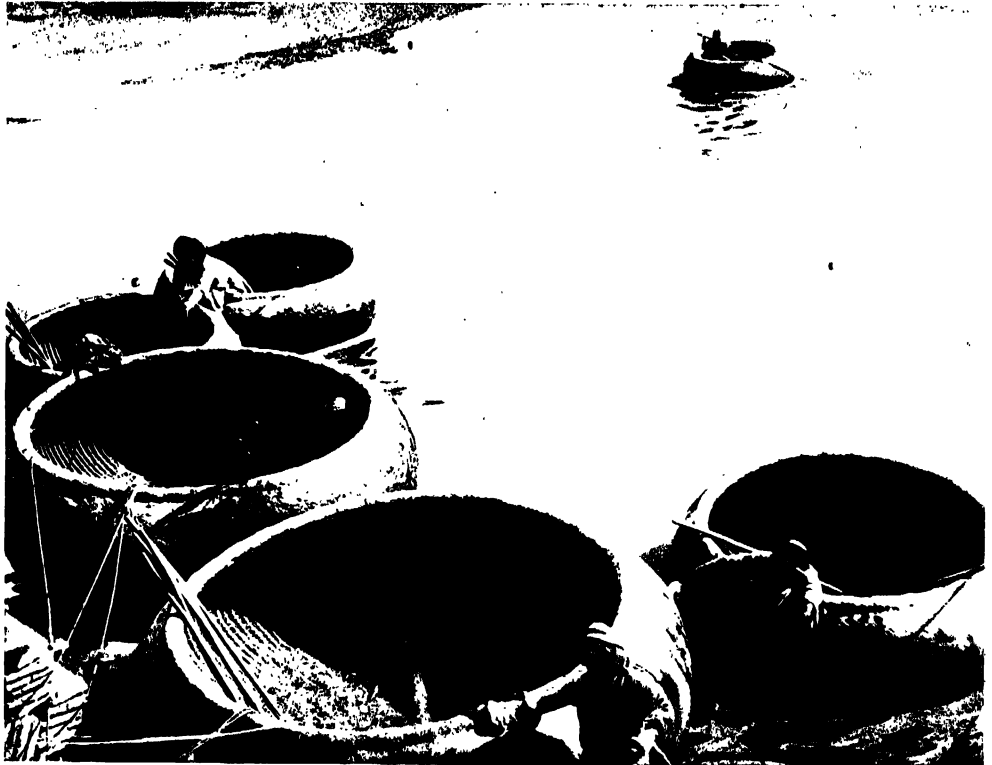
well as Jew; the legend goes that on this spot Abraham made ready to sacrifice his son. This is now a town of 40,000 people, even after thousands of Armenians were killed here in 1895, many being burned to death in their own church. Through it goes the caravan route from Baghdad to Syria, crossing the river at Bir, and running westward to Aintab, another place of considerable trade, which should be stimulated by a proposed branch of the Baghdad railway. For some distance now the river runs within a hundred miles of the Levant coast, from which it turns away to the south-east, and in this general direction meanders towards the Persian Gulf. Steamers have made their way as high as Bir; but more familiar craft are boats of reeds "daubed with slime and with

Native Boats on the Tigris

Photo. W. H. Rau

pitch", like Moses' ark, or rude rafts buoyed up by the inflated skins which people of these regions use to float themselves across a fordless stream. Such rafts serve to float down the produce of Mesopotamia, among which, it appears, a growing place is taken by liquorice-root.

Now winding round hills and rocky masses easily confused with the ruins that crumble upon them, now expanding into broad reaches which in the dry season may become a chain of pools linked by the stream, now shut in by weird cliffs or dank jungles, where the feathery tamarisk prevails, with here and there a clump of cotton poplars or a forest of wild mulberry-trees, the Euphrates comes down into a country whose general characteristic still is, as in the days of Xenophon, a flat treeless plain, naked or overgrown with wormwood and aromatic plants, from which no more perennial streams come to swell the great river. Across this open expanse sometimes sweep sudden and

violent hurricanes, like that which wrecked the *Tigris* on Colonel Chesney's exploring expedition. Volcanic agency is often visible, as in the wells of naphtha and bitumen that give grimy prosperity to places along the banks. Other spots are kept green by irrigation-streams and water-wheels; and towns or villages are passed, seldom without ruined castles and tombs recalling their days of fame, when this now poor land was marked by the passage of classical or Saracenic conquerors. At Anah, which Dr. W. F. Ainsworth calls "the most picturesque and delightful town on the Euphrates", the vegetation takes on a southern richness, its fringe of gardens showing palms, figs, pomegranates, and orange-trees, that also cover the islands by which the river is broken. A line of low hills running across the desert from Syria, with poor Arab villages dotted below them, here forms a barrier between the northern and the southern plains.

The modern places on the Euphrates are mostly inconsiderable, and we cannot linger by all the ruins of ancient greatness to be traced among surrounding desolation. The most famous of these is Babylon, that stood some distance to the south of Baghdad, where the Euphrates and the Tigris draw together, then turn away again before their confluence. The town of Hillah is partly built of bricks from the ruins of Nebuchadnezzar's capital, which extended over the plain within a walled square, its size apparently much exaggerated in tradition, with a branch of the river flowing through it, by diverting which Cyrus gained an entry into the doomed city; then again Darius "swept it with the besom of destruction". Alexander the Great, who died here, had proposed to restore it; but after his time it fell into rapid decay. Babylon is indeed "become heaps", its magnificence now represented by wrecks of brickwork and shapeless mounds in which archæologists labour to trace the palace of the great king; the "hanging gardens" that counted among the ancient world's seven wonders, where half a century ago a single solitary tree could be seen; the towering temple of Belus that made such an offence to exiled Israel, perhaps identical with the tower of Babel; and other names renowned in the scriptures of different people. A hillock crowned by a ruin, standing up apart on the Arabian side and known to the natives as Birs Nimrod, is by some taken for that prehistoric monument; but all certainty is lost in the ignorance of ages, though the discovery and interpretation of cuneiform inscriptions have thrown much light on the early annals of our race. Most remarkable have been recent excavations at Nippur, about 50 miles south-east of Babylon, where an American expedition has unearthed the remains of palaces and temples indicating the foundation of a city at least six or seven thousand years before our era, so vast, that though hundreds of Arabs are kept at work, it is calculated that a century may be spent in fully disclosing the buried ruins.

The difficulty of mapping out these hidden monuments by the dubious indications of old writers, and of identifying others that dot this country on all sides, is increased through the probable shifting of the Euphrates, which crooks and bends its sluggish way over the plains, and here has overflowed into great stagnant lakes or marshes, "a possession for the bittern, and pools of water". Near one of these lakes to the west of Babylon is Kerbela, a place of great sanctity to the Persians and other Shiah Mohammedans, as containing the tomb of their saint and martyr Hussein, son of Ali and grandson of the Prophet. Many caravans cross the Tigris and the Euphrates on a difficult

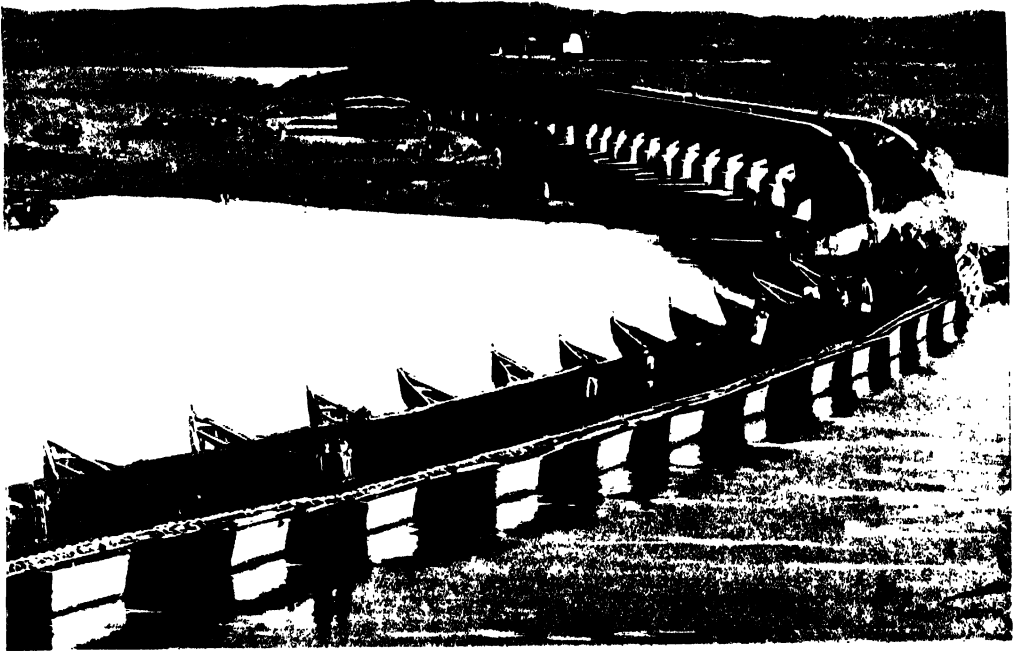
pilgrimage from Persia, bringing hither from afar thousands of loathsome corpses to be buried around this shrine, as at Kum and Meshed, the idea of burial in consecrated earth being so strong a feature of Shiah religion, from which the priests and people of Kerbela profit in pocket, but hardly, one would guess, in sanitary conditions. The riches of Kerbela, however, were plundered by Wahabite assailants about a century ago. To the south of Hillah, Nejef or Meshed Ali on its lake is another goal of pilgrimage to the tomb of Ali, where also is shown a tomb called by the name of Ezekiel. Not far from this, Kufa, now an insignificant village, was at one time the capital of the Caliphs, and has given its name to the *Kufic*, or early Arabian characters, that figure in ancient inscriptions. This marshy wilderness was then a rich plain, through which, perhaps, the river ran a different course, and by artificial channels was certainly drawn sooner into connection with the Tigris. About their confluence at Kurnah still blooms one of the rival sites of the Garden of Eden, in which is even pointed out that Tree of Knowledge,

"Whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world and all our woe".

The Tigris, though not such a great river, has the importance of larger towns still prospering upon it. Not far below its source, near the left bank of the Euphrates, comes Diarbekir, the official centre of the Turkish province that takes in part of southern Armenia and Kurdistan, with the mountainous head of Mesopotamia. This is a place of some 40,000 people, a third of them Christians, picturesquely situated on an eminence above the river, where rise the walls and towers of its citadel and its many temples of rival religions. Besides some two dozen mosques, it has an Armenian cathedral and the churches of Nestorian and Jacobite sects, part of whom worship in communion with Rome, while Protestant missionaries have introduced another element of dissension, so that here prevails as great a mixture of creed as of blood. Amida was its ancient name, and to the Turks it is known as the "Black Amid", from the gloomy aspect of the basaltic rocks of which its fortifications are built. It has a considerable industry, chiefly in leather-making, by help of the gall-nuts that are one of the most notable productions of this district; and the position of Diarbekir makes it a centre of trade, which would be flourishing under any better government. The German railway that is to pass this way should make a great difference to its prosperity.

Below Diarbekir the Tigris receives its eastern branch from the Van region and other tributaries from the mountains of Kurdistan. Among the mountains to the south lies Mardin, a caravan station and chief seat of the Jacobite Christians. The next great town on the river bank is Mosul, once noted for the fine fabrics that have supplied us with the name *muslin*. Rather more populous than Diarbekir, it is described as a mean town, with some imposing mosques and several churches of rival Christian sects, to which a certain dignity may be given by the use of a white gypsum quarried from the hills under the name of "Mosul marble". Its chief interest is in the ruins of Nineveh, the fallen capital of Assyria, extending far along the river's opposite bank in mounds, the excavation of which by Botta, Layard, and others has enriched European museums with so many impressive figures and inscriptions. Access to stone quarries in the mountains has imparted to the remains of Nineveh more

durable form than in the case of the brick walls of Babylon. One mound covers the sumptuous palace of Sennacherib; on others stand later tombs called by the names of Jonah and of Nahum; and for many leagues around the country reveals traces of old magnificence, as on the site of Nimrud a little farther down the stream, and by the ruins of Asshur above Samarah, whose glittering dome marks a shrine of Moslem pilgrimage.

After taking in the Great and the Little Zab from the Kurdistan mountains 250 miles below Mosul, the Tigris flows by Baghdad, set in green gardens

Bridge of Boats at Mosul, on the Tigris

of the date-palm, which has now supplanted the olive and other plants of higher ground, as Arabs have become the leading element of the population. Surrounded by the graves of dead cities and by dried-up channels that once made its plain widely fertile, Baghdad itself, with over 140,000 inhabitants, is still a notable city, the capital of Lower Mesopotamia, though far fallen from its splendour in the days of "Good Haroun Alraschid", who, by the way, was not such an admirable monarch as we see him represented in fiction, his fame darkly stained by cruelty to Giafar, the companion of his nocturnal rambles, and to the rest of the Barmecide family. Since his day the city has been shifted from the western mainly to the eastern bank. Though it has suffered much from overflowing of the river, and has more than once been almost depopulated by plague, it is described as well built for an Eastern city, of yellow furnace-baked bricks, with at least a hundred mosques in the

Persian rather than the Turkish style.[1] Most of its old buildings have fallen, but one fine one is shown as the tomb of Zobeide, Haroun's beautiful wife. Its bazaars are large and well stocked with foreign goods, as with the leather, silk, cotton, and woollen stuffs that are the local industries, for which the projected railway should open up new markets. Baghdad has already the distinction of a horse-tramway, a great step in progress for this part of the world. The broad river, crossed by a bridge of boats, is another scene of activity, where in hot weather bronzed youths swim like fishes among hundreds of craft, from steam vessels to such circular boats of hide stretched on osiers as were noticed by Herodotus. The suburb on the farther side is chiefly given up to Persian Shiahs, whose quarter a recent German visitor characterizes as marked by "greater dirt, smaller houses, more dogs, and less civil behaviour to Europeans". Persians are familiar here, not only in the way of business, but through caravans of pilgrims and corpses on the way to their shrines at Kerbela and Nejef Ali. A branch of the Baghdad line may strike off into Persia, whose mountainous frontier is under a hundred miles to the east.

About twenty miles below, on opposite sides of the river, are the remains of the Macedonian city Seleucia, and of a Parthian capital, where one fine monument is associated with the name of the Great Chosroes, as is this district with the Emperor Julian's disastrous campaign, and with the degenerate Persian kingdom's overthrow by the fierce missionaries of the Prophet. Farther down stands the reputed tomb of Ezra, venerated by rival creeds. The monotonous view is thus depicted by Mrs. Bishop:—"The level plains of Chaldæa, only a few feet higher than the Tigris, stretch away to the distant horizon, unbroken until to-day, when low hills, white with the first snows of winter, are softly painted on a pure blue sky, very far away. The plains are buff and brown, with an occasional splash—near villages as buff and brown as the soil out of which they rise—of the dark green of date-gardens, or the vivid green of winter wheat. British engineers are now at work on a system of barrages to enrich these treeless flats, taken by some as the site of Eden.

From Baghdad downwards, steamers ply on the river, which at Kurnah joins the Euphrates, over a hundred miles above the Persian Gulf, and henceforth the united streams are known as the Shat-el-Arab. The Arab race makes the main population of Lower Mesopotamia, in whose more fertile parts the Bedouins have settled down as tamer *fellahin*. Kurnah might well appear an Eden to those coming from the arid upper plains, whose woolly and thorny

[1] Mr. Walter B. Harris (*Batoum to Baghdad*) thus presents the lively panorama of the bazaars with their throng of motley population:—"Rich town merchants in long garments of silk, half-concealed by their sashes of cashmere and the folds of the *abba* or sleeveless cloak, which is so typical of this part of the East; Seyids and mollahs, with proud, unrelenting features and white complexions, robed in silks, and wearing turbans of neatly-folded white or dark-blue muslin; Turkish officers in broad-cloth and gold-lace, with jingling spurs and swords; rough Kurdish *hammala*, porters, and carriers of heavy cases of merchandise; half-nude, laughing street urchins; private soldiers in their neat blue cotton uniforms and red fezzes, swaggering along hand in hand; African negroes; cringing Jews and Armenians, so difficult to tell apart, either in looks or character; Arabs from the country, with their soiled linen and faded abbas of brown or brown-and-white stripes, their heads covered in coloured *kifiyehs*, the points of which hang over the back and shoulders, held in place by rolls of soft camels' hair; beggars singing as they pass, often a long string of them, and blind; donkeys driven along with loud cries, bearing on their backs the freshly-filled skins of water; Arab Sheikhs on Arab horses, gay with bridles studded with silver plaques, and mounted on gaudy saddles, their belts full of arms; youths from the country, rich with some unlawful plunder, washed, and clean, and laughing, planning how best they can ill-spend their ill-gotten gains, intent upon the pleasures of the city; auctioneers vending all kinds of wares, from old embroidered clothes to modern revolvers, from brass candlesticks to cotton quilts, all going to and fro, screaming, laughing, yelling, and quarrelling! And seen against a background of box-like shops, gorgeous with brilliant goods, in the half-light of the arched and domed arcades, the bazaar is a sight indeed."

plants and thin grasses have now given place to more succulent vegetation. Between hedges of date-palms the river flows in a jungle of reeds, rushes, and tall grass, its banks sometimes shaded by groves of tamarisk, acacia, and poplar, but the absence of the "willows of Babylon" has been remarked on. The alluvial soil is often found drowned by inundation or blighted by saline efflorescences; sometimes threatened by a fringe of shifting sand-hills that become slowly anchored down through the growth of such vegetation as the mariscus, with its rich green stems and glistening spikelets; but other parts along the embankments of the river and the branching canals are richly cultivated, and in very early spring the grassy plains glow with a profusion of flowers. As we come south, of course, the sun has grown more powerful, while the fall of the land, too, takes us away from a rigorous winter. The driest months are said to be October and November, when the Mesopotamian plains have been scorched up, but soon revive under moderate showers passing over the Lebanon from the Mediterranean.

Nearly half-way down the Shat-el-Arab, a broad, deep stream floating vessels of 500 tons, stands the somewhat decayed and unhealthy port, Basra or Bassora, whence Sinbad the Sailor set forth on his adventurous voyages, and it still does a good deal of trade as a link between Baghdad and Bombay, to which there are regular steamers. The staple of Basra is the dates that grow in forests around it. Farther down, by Mohammera, comes in the Persian river Karun, below which this great volume of water opens into the Persian Gulf, nearly 600 miles from Baghdad.

This sketch, it is hoped, will suffice to outline the main features of Mesopotamia, blending as they do with the mountainous country to the north, and the deserts of Arabia on the south. Its productions have been indicated as we followed its two great arteries. Its animal life does not much differ from what we have seen in neighbouring lands presenting the same natural characteristics. The ruins of once stately cities are given up to jackals and hyenas; where cobras and huge lizards bear out the prophet's vision of "a dwelling-place for dragons". Every clump of reeds by the river is a cover for wild boars. The timid gazelle and other antelopes scour over the rocky plains. The Asiatic lion, smaller than his African brother, holds out upon the mountainous Persian border. Various wild cats lurk wherever they can find cover, descendants of those that once peopled the "paradises" or hunting-parks of the Persian kings. Goats and sheep, both wild and tame, are the cattle of the mountains, as buffaloes of the marshy plains towards the river-mouth. Camels and asses are common beasts of burden, and the swift Arab steed is mingled among sturdier half-breeds. Birds abound, especially on the river-course, among them such game as the francolin or West Asian pheasant, the quail, the sand-grouse, and the red-legged partridge. Wild fowl swarm in the marshy lakes, where one observer has noted how even the amphibious Arab inhabitants develop long thin legs like storks or herons, and can dive and swim like fish. The Euphrates rears fish so large that a single barbel is described as too much for a camel-load; and on the mud banks of its mouth basks a tiny fish which seems as much at home in the air as in the water. Sharks show themselves a good way up the Shat-el-Arab and its tributaries. Then there is the usual, or even more than the usual, allowance of hot-country insect pests, from locusts and hornets to swarms of the provoking mosquito, who is now accused of

spreading the malarious fevers so common in Lower Mesopotamia. Another prevalent ailment is that known as the "Aleppo button", or the "Baghdad button", or from the names of other towns where it marks so many faces, an obstinate boil which few escape. But, indeed, pests and eruptions, fevers and agues, are only too familiar all over Turkey in Asia.

ANATOLIA

Asia Minor, the Greek Anatolia, the Italian Levant, "Land of the sunrise", is properly the projecting point between the Black Sea and that corner of the Mediterranean known as the Levant. It justifies its ancient name in being an epitome of Greater Asia, a mass of table-lands on a smaller scale, continuing that of Iran as Persia continues the great central plateau, edged and seamed also by mountain chains, huge compared with those of Britain, but only half the height of the Himalayas and the Hindoo Koosh. The interior plains rise to over 4000 feet, enclosed on the east and south by the great Taurus and Anti-Taurus ranges starting off from among the Armenian uplands, names which have been used rather loosely by geographers, and which locally are replaced by special titles for their prominent masses, with the affix *Tagh* or *Dagh*. On the north side runs another chain of broken links. The point of the peninsula, too, is wrinkled by mountain folds, so as to form a picturesque succession of highlands and river valleys opening on to the coast plains. Its whole length is about 700 and its breadth 400 miles, making a compact country larger than the German empire, but with a population at the highest estimate not equal to that of Belgium and Holland.

The lowest layer of this population, so far as we can penetrate its strata, seems to be the forgotten people called Hittites, whose inscriptions are the oldest of thickly-strewn monuments to a succession of former civilizations. Upon the blending of now indistinguishable elements float masses of varied humanity which hold together in a state rather of mechanical than of chemical mixture. On the top come the Osmanli Turks, whose supremacy has blighted at once their own character and the regions that show so many ruins of flourishing under former masters. The general state of Asia Minor is one of pitiable decay. Wide stretches of land have gone out of cultivation. High, open plains give pasture to half-wild herdsmen, wandering in summer, and in winter huddling into poor villages. The towns, which seldom want the merit of romantic situation, are often shrunk within their old limits, and like choked-up harbours and highways gone to ruin, speak of a nation "in its second childhood", as has been aptly said, while here and there blooming districts show what might be made of the soil, or an emporium near the coast is kept prosperous mainly by foreign stimulus.

"I despair", writes Mr. Bryce, "of conveying the impression of melancholy which this coast of Asia Minor makes upon the traveller, whatever be his political or religious prepossessions. Here is a country blessed with every gift of nature, a fertile soil, possessing every variety of exposure and situation, a mild and equable climate, mines of iron, copper, silver, and coal in the

mountains, a land of exquisite beauty, which was once studded with flourishing cities and filled by an industrious population. And now from the Euphrates to the Bosphorus all is silence, poverty, despair. There is hardly a sail on the sea, hardly a village on the shores, hardly a road by which commerce can pass into the interior. You ask the cause, and receive from everyone the same answer. Misgovernment, or rather no government; the existence of a power which does nothing for its subjects, but stands in the way when there is a chance of doing something for themselves."

These reflections were suggested off the coast of the ancient Pontus, now the Turkish province of Trebizond, lying between the northern mountains and

Harbour and Castle, Trebizond, from height above Demendera Road. (From a photograph.)

the sea, which here Xenophon's weary band hailed so gladly after their long harassed march, as many a traveller coming down from the bare heights of Armenia has seen Eden in the blooming plains and glens of this sheltered strip, watered by short mountain torrents. The modern name of the province is given by its chief city and seaport, the classical Trapezus, once famous in our middle-age romances, from the days when a branch of the dying Byzantine empire took precarious root here, and knightly adventurers hence pushed far into the Armenian mountains, leaving behind them those ruined fastnesses commonly known as Genoese castles, though the Genoese were only one division of the crusading invaders that for a time sought to play in Asia Minor the part afterwards given up to the conquering Turk. Trebizond, picturesquely displayed on a terraced amphitheatre among lovely environs, is the chief harbour of this coast, and might be called the port of Turkish Armenia,

from which come a great proportion of its 40,000 inhabitants.[1] After the Russian conquest of the Caucasus, Trebizond was for a time infested by myriads of Circassian emigrants taking refuge with their co-believers, upon whom they settled like a swarm of locusts; and a reign of terror prevailed in the district till these barbarian patriots, who cut such a fine figure in fiction, could be spread for wider depredation over Asia Minor.

The principal road leading inland is that to Persia by Erzeroum, which, like most other roads of the peninsula, is a succession of ups and downs, here little better than a rocky staircase, there improved into a fair highway by some spasm of energy on the part of a reforming pasha, then again showing the ruins of an ancient causeway, beside which generations of camels and mules have worn more convenient tracks, beasts of burden far oftener seen on them than *arabas*, the jolting ox-carts that are almost the only vehicles of this country. Yet Pontus, with its fertile coast-land, is one of the comparatively flourishing parts of Asia Minor.[2]

Batoum, the excellent port at the eastern end of the Black Sea, now belongs to Russia, as we have seen. Along the coast westward comes Samsoun, a modernized town, once a great Greek port, and still a considerable starting-place of inland trade. This lies in the region of the fabulous Amazons, between the mouths of the Jeshil Irmak and the Kizil Irmak, rivers that, both rising in the northern mountain range, their waters at one point close together, take very different courses. The former has a comparatively short run behind the coast range, finding a gap through which it turns straight to the sea, it and its tributaries watering a country that should be known to every school-boy, for here was the scene of the Roman war with Mithridates, and of the campaign so proudly reported by Cæsar, *Veni, vidi, vici.* Upon it stand Tokat, a mainly Armenian town, where is the grave of Henry Martyn, the missionary; and the "garden city" Amasia, birthplace of Strabo, the ancient geographer, also of Osman Pasha, the great Turkish general of our own time, a place celebrated for its apples, pears, and other fruit, as for its rock monuments and traditions

> "Of old, unhappy far-off things,
> And battles long ago".

Amasia has been called one of the most beautifully situated towns of Asia Minor; and one of the most prosperous, in the same region, is Marsivan, notable for an American missionary college that shines in the native darkness of ignorance.

The Kizil Irmak, the classical Halys, wanders away far to the south, making a loop of 800 miles through the heart of the peninsula of which it

[1] This, as elsewhere, may be given as a round number; but let us remember that all over Turkish ground it is hard to be precise in figures taken from varying estimates and fluctuating states of prosperity.

[2] Where civilization ceases, thick forests are nursed by the rainfall from the sea, and the slopes will be gay in spring with familiar blooms of a temperate clime, as Mr. Lynch describes on the road to Erzeroum. "The brakes were a mass of bloom; a little higher we met the azaleas; the yellow azalea and the pale-mauve petal of the rhododendron were in the splendour of their latest blossoming. In the lush forest we noticed the beech-tree, the walnut and the maple, the hazel, the oak, and the elm; the elders were in full flower, and the cherry-trees were conspicuous for their number and size. The more open spaces were covered with masses of forget-me-nots; calyces of hellebore, withered yellow, rested on the rank grass; and yellow mullein, filling the air with its subtle perfume, rose from among the rocks." Higher up, firs succeeded beech-woods, and greenery shrunk to ribands by the edge of water-courses. But on the southern side of the mountain ridge, in June the rim of the Armenian table-land showed dry and bare but for patches of buttercups by the bed of a river among stony downs—such humble touches of home meet the wanderer in the sternest wilds.

is the chief river. Passing Sivas, the capital of the province so named, in part representing Armenia Minor, it flows down into the ancient Cappadocia, draining the high inland plain on which stands Cæsarea—a name repeated in the Roman world like our *Kingstowns* and *Victorias*—now known as Kaisariyeh, and still a city of commercial importance, though fallen from the days when nearly half a million people were sheltered within its restricted fortifications, beyond which rich vineyards and orchards are littered with ancient ruin. Both Sivas and Kaisariyeh are centres of missionary work, Protestant as well as Catholic. South of the latter rises the isolated mountain mass of Ergish-Tagh, whose volcanic cone (about 13,000 feet) is believed to be the loftiest point of Asia Minor.

Farther to the west the Kizil Irmak, barred by the Taurus masses, changes the direction which has brought it more than half-way across the peninsula towards the Mediterranean, henceforth bearing north, and making a bend back eastward so as to describe the greater part of a circle. Thus it traverses the large and mountainous central province of Angora, the scriptural Galatia, known for the long silky hair of its goats, which comes largely to Bradford, in Yorkshire, to be used in the manufacture of mohair and alpaca. Angora, the chief city, makes the centre of this trade, that brings its people into intercourse with England, and it is the terminus of a railway branch, which may be continued towards Armenia. With its ruined battlements and tall minarets Angora stands imposingly on a hill, at the practical disadvantage that all drinking-water must be brought on hard-worked donkeys from the stream below. This, cut off by mountains from the Kizil Irmak basin, runs down to the Sakaria river, that takes its bending course to the western end of the Black Sea. On all sides the country seems a labyrinth of ridges, upon whose wintry heights not only the goats, but the sheep and other animals have developed such warm fleece. Goats are extirpating enemies of vegetation on the bare uplands; but the lower heights will often be covered with vineyards; and between are hollows of rich soil, more or less well cultivated, where even a miserable village may once have had a name in the world, like that Gordium at which Alexander is said to have cut the Gordian knot.[1]

We return to the north coast, on which the classical Paphlagonia and Bithynia are now the Turkish provinces Kastamuni and Ismid. Beyond the mouth of the Kizil Irmak comes a bay, on the sandy western horn of which Sinope makes naturally one of the best harbours on this coast, where the Turkish fleet was destroyed by the Russians as a prelude to the Crimean war; and the town has sunk from its importance as a great Greek seaport, birthplace of the cynic Diogenes, who here might have his old difficulty in finding an honest man, still more one in whom honesty was united with business-like enterprise.

There is no other port of note till we reach the Bosphorus, that famous

[1] Colonel Burnaby, for once trying his hand at fine writing, thus depicts a scene in the Angora country:—"A succession of hills, each one loftier than its fellow, broke upon us as we climbed the steep. They were of all forms, shades, and colours—ash-gray, blue, vermilion, robed in imperial purple, and dotted with patches of vegetation. Our road wound amidst these chamelon-like heights. Silvery rivulets streamed down the sides of the many-coloured hills. A rising sun showered its gleaming rays upon the sparkling cascades. They flashed and reflected the tints and shadows. A gurgling sound of many waters arose from the depths below. We reach the summit of the highest hill. The scene changes. We look down upon a vast plain. It is surrounded on all sides by undulating heights. The white sandy soil of the valley throws still more into relief the many-coloured mountains. Patches of snow deck the more distant peaks. The sun is dispelling the flossy clouds which overhang the loftier crags. The filmy vapour floats away into space, caressing for a few moments the mountains' crests; it is wafted onward, and then disappears from our view."

strait connecting the Black Sea with the Sea of Marmora. At the southern end of this is Scutari, the Asian suburb of Constantinople, whose main feature, beyond "dirty lanes and filthy streets", is the vast cyprus-shaded cemetery, to which European Turks are brought for thickly-packed burial in their native earth. There are thousands of British graves, too, at Scutari, marked by one great national monument, for here was our hospital depôt during the Crimean war, when Florence Nightingale taught Englishwomen how to soothe pain and sickness. Constantinople itself, known to the Turks as Stamboul, is venerated by them as the chief seat of their race; and travellers of all nations have extolled the prospect on either side of the straits, the city, lying along the Golden Horn inlet, making one of the most striking panoramas in the world. The group of

A Road through the Cemetery, Scutari. (From a photograph.)

towns and villages on the Asian side, about Scütari, forms a considerable place, with no small trade of its own, the population, by one estimate, being over 70,000. One of these villages is famous in church history as scene of the Council of Chalcedon, whose decision on a much-vexed question of divinity opened the Armenian schism.

From this side of the Bosphorus starts a railway line to Ismid, the ancient Nicomedia, standing at the head of a deep gulf, up which it can be reached from Constantinople by steamer also. This, one of the great cities of the Roman empire, has still some importance as a diverging point of main roads from the capital through Asia Minor, eastward by Erzeroum to Persia, over the centre of the peninsula to the valley of the Euphrates, and by Aleppo to Syria and Baghdad. Through Ismid, too, comes the trunk of the railway lines that are slowly opening up this corner of Asia Minor. A short branch goes off eastward to Ada Bazar, on the lower course of the Sakaria river. The main line turns southward to Eski Shehr (*old city*), where it throws off the

branch to Angora, then holds on south-eastward through the ancient Phrygia, among whose wild hills are found rock-hewn sepulchres and dwellings older than the monuments of Greece and Rome. The high plains of this region were once strongholds of the Ottoman Turks, who by valour and virtue overcame their rival kinsmen before making the settlement in Europe that seems like to end with such fatal degeneration. The line passes by Kutahia (*Cotyæum*), taken to be the birthplace of Æsop, then by Afium Kara Hissar (Black Castle of Opium), a town dominated, like so many others, by a fortress-crowned rock, the Hapsburg of the Osman dynasty, about which are the best poppy-fields of Asia Minor. The name Hissar, as we have more than once seen, means a castle, Kara being black; and this name has here been extended to or borrowed from the dark range called Kara Hissar-i-Sahib, which the railway pierces by a pass that has rung with the mail of crusading knights and their Saracen foes, then comes down to Konia (*Iconium*), a city of note long before it became the capital of the Seljuk Turks, who had nearly anticipated the Ottomans in their conquest across the Bosphorus. This, besides being a place of considerable trade, is a goal of pilgrimage for its tombs of Turkish hero saints, while undevout travellers can admire the richly-adorned mosques and medresses, the ruins of the Seljuk palace, and two classical sculptures counting among the finest of such relics. Konia, on a high plain behind the Taurus range, is made the starting-point of the new line to Baghdad; and it seems likely to have a direct connection with Smyrna, from which another rail already joins the main one at Afium Kara Hissar.

Let us again turn back to follow the coast from the Sea of Marmora. The most flourishing city in the north-western corner of Asia Minor, with the exception perhaps of Scutari, is Brussa, at the foot of the Mysian Olympus, from which a short railway runs down to its port on the Sea of Marmora. This was capital of the Osmanli empire for a time, before the conquest across the straits; and it has now manufactures of silk, wool, brocade, leather, &c., that support a population of 100,000 in the town and its surrounding suburbs. It is well built for an Asian town, about a citadel towering picturesquely aloft on a commanding height, and contains many mosques and monuments of sultans, besides Greek and Armenian churches, and Jewish synagogues. Violent earthquakes have not destroyed all traces of classical antiquity here, nor at the ancient Nicea, on Lake Isnik to the north-east, a place famed by the meeting of that council (A.D. 315) that drew up one of our creeds.

To the west of Brussa are two large lakes and a confluence of streams, beyond which we pass into the ancient Mysia, cut off from Europe by the long narrow Dardanelles, with its imposing fortresses and legendary sites, that historic strait crossed by Xerxes and recrossed by Alexander, then once and again by the Turkish hosts that were to overwhelm the decay of Grecian virtue. The channel is so narrow—1½ mile at one point—that Lord Byron could boast of swimming across it in little more than an hour, without such a bright beacon as guided Leander. When we turn the corner southward, we stand upon the most sacred ground of ancient minstrelry, for here is the Troad, watered by the Simois and Scamander, flowing between woods and swamps from the heights of Mt. Ida to the shore where Besika Bay harbours modern fleets in view of Tenedos and Imbros and the heights of Samothrace. To-day miserable Turkish villages dot the plain on which buffaloes graze among

mounds taken to be the graves of Achilles, Ajax, and other heroes to whom genius has given immortality. It may be they never lived but in poetical imagination, it may be that Ilium itself was but a "baseless fabric", around which an "unsubstantial pageant" took airy shape as the most renowned of wars. At all events, at Hissarlik Dr. Schliemann's researches have unearthed the remains of a succession of prehistoric cities, amongst which is taken to have been old Troy. Farther to the south are the extensive Roman ruins of Troas, now Eski Stamboul, from which St. Paul sailed on his mission to Macedonia.

The island-studded west coast is boldly broken by high promontories and deep natural havens. Southward, the Mysian shore is succeeded by that of

Custom-house Quay, Smyrna. (From a photograph)

Lydia, seat of Ionian culture, where the Hermus, the Turkish Gediz-Chai, flows into the deep Gulf of Smyrna, a natural haven forty miles long. At the head of this stands Smyrna, the "Oriental Naples", Asia Minor's chief city, and one of the great ports of the world, fortunate in its safe roomy harbour, and its situation on the edge of a populous and industrious region of hill and valley enjoying a more genial climate than do the bare uplands of the interior. The population is over 200,000, more than half of them Greeks. Several thousand European foreigners live here, under the protection and jurisdiction of their consuls, England as yet most numerously represented, but French is their common language, and Germans are more and more coming forward in the commercial community. There is a still larger proportion of Catholic Christians "of sorts" lumped together with the Europeans as "Franks", a name that

here has worn off part of its reproach, so much so that "Ismir" is denounced by stricter Moslem zeal as an "infidel city". To such a strong foreign admixture, and to more enlightened governors than have usually been bestowed on Asia Minor, the city owes its prosperity and wealth, gained less through its weaving of the Turkey carpets we know at home, than as distributing-point for the productions of the rich province of Aidin, opened up by railways, which have here their focus, as well as long camel caravans, bringing to the sea silk, cotton, opium, madder, oil, raisins, and grain, carrying back manufactured articles from Europe, and other imported wares. As at Brussa, raw silk is an important production, which here as elsewhere has had to contend with disease in the worms.

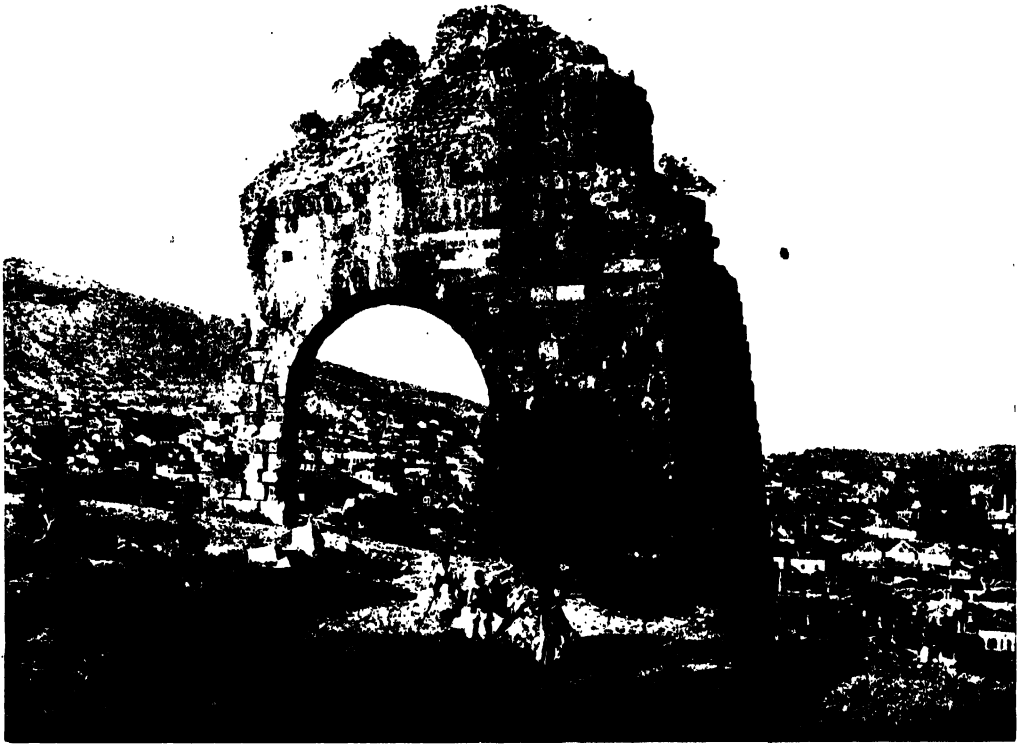
The city, which displays handsome marble buildings, sometimes quarried from the remains of its ancient state, is divided into four quarters, rising in tiers upon the heights. On the harbour are the Frank town, and that inhabited by Greeks and Armenians; above this come the poor dwellings and narrow dirty streets housing some 20,000 Jews, and higher up the Turkish quarter, mostly built of wood, bristling with minarets and cypresses. Above all, on the hills, the airy residences of the chief merchants are grouped about Bournabat and other beautiful suburban villages, refuges from the plague and pests that infest the crowded port. Behind, opens the swampy valley of the Meles, where the older Smyrna is believed to have stood. The modern city is the seat of a Greek and of an Armenian archbishop, and contains several institutions by which the rival creeds vie with each other in a public spirit and philanthropy not often manifest in Turkish dominions. Such are the Greek College, with its museum and library, endowed by the munificence of wealthy Greeks; the Konak, a block of government buildings such as we might call the town-hall; the Greek Hospital; the Turkish Hospital in its beautiful gardens, near which a large barrack made a home for our convalescent soldiers in the Crimean war; the Deaconesses' Institution, a German school that has done good work for the education of girls; then outside of the town, reached by tramway, the Turkish School for Orphan Boys, and the Government School of Commerce and Agriculture.

Smyrna is a very ancient city, though it now shows few signs of age unless in massive ruins on the hills, and the classical legends associated with such spots as the Lake of Tantalus, and the spot shown as tomb of that sorely-tried offender, near Bournabat. In the Bath of Diana, another pretty pool, among fragments of what seems to have been a marble temple, were found statues of Diana and Bacchus. This is one of the seven cities that claimed the birth of Homer, whose tomb is declared to be hidden in ruins two miles from Bournabat, and he is said to have written his Iliad in a vanished grotto near Diana's Bath. For a more authentic association, the village of Cordelio, on the bay, preserves the name of Richard Cœur de Lion, who lived here for a time in his crusading days. Another fame Smyrna has is as one of the Seven Churches addressed in the Apocalypse, this city being the only one that still continues to flourish in a material sense, while it is to be feared that its spiritual life might no longer merit the approval by which it and Philadelphia were distinguished among the seven. The neighbourhood has had a bad name for brigands, who in one noted case were got rid of by being enlisted as police; and there is said to appear a recrudescence of this evil in the province.

The sites of most of these Churches, and of other once great cities, may be visited from Smyrna by rail, so closely are the past and the present drawn together in this corner of Asiatic Turkey where modern enterprise has taken its firmest footing. The railway running inland by Aidin was the first opened in Asia outside of British Indian territory. As it turns away from the coast, 50 miles south of Smyrna, it comes close to the scanty relics of Ephesus, where once stood that rich temple of Diana, one of the old world's seven wonders, the great theatre and circus, and many a palace, constructed out of its own marble quarries in Mount Prion; but of this magnificence only fragments remain, half buried in the soil, built into Turkish walls, or scattered in Moslem mosques and European museums; and the Seven Sleepers of Ephesus, those Asian Rip Van Winkles who, according to old legend, enjoyed such a long nap in a mountain cave, would find cause for amazement could they now be roused by the whistle of a locomotive rattling past their retreat. Apart from war and earthquake, which have done so much to ruin Asian cities, Ephesus owes its decay to the silting up of the once open port into a feverish marsh; and it appears that Smyrna is in danger of the same fate, if the careless Turkish government do not clear away the bank of mud and sand by which the river Hermus threatens to choke its bay. On the whole coast of the Levant, indeed, its intermittently torrential streams are working a similar change.

Turning inland here, the line runs among hills covered with fig-orchards, vineyards, olives, and pomegranates, and to the south commands glimpses of rich barley-fields through which the Meander describes its sinuous windings, supplying to our language a word that might have been taken nearer home from the Wye in Herefordshire or the Links of Forth below Stirling. Patches of poppies, too, are seen appropriately fringing the Lethe, on which stand the ruins of Magnesia ad Meandrum—to be distinguished from another place of this name, the modern Manissa—where Themistocles is said to have died in exile. Figs are the special produce of the country about Aidin, a prosperous and picturesque town, busy in cotton manufacture, which gives its name to this province of more than a million inhabitants, and was the original terminus of the line now pushed on to Dineir south of the Kara-Hissar range. At Seraikeui, 60 miles farther west, the station is within a few miles of Eski Hissar (Old Castle), near which Laodicea is now a desolate show of tottering walls and rifled tombs. More imposing are the ruins of Hierapolis in this vicinity, another early home of Christianity mentioned by St. Paul, where nature has spread beauty as well as decay by the petrifying waters of a hot spring, pouring liquid marble over incrusted shelves and basins, like those famous terraces destroyed in New Zealand by the same volcanic power as had shaped and coloured them. Not far off was Colossæ, long so utterly demolished that its very name might be forgotten but for the epistle once addressed to its congregation.

The other Churches of the Seven are to be reached by a railway going northwards from Smyrna, then turning up the Hermus valley to Manissa. Here a branch diverges north by Ak-Hissar, a Turkish Perth in its reputation for dyeing, which shows some few fragments of Thyatira built into its walls. This branch goes on to Somah, between which and the coast, in the valley of the Caicus, lies Pergamos, that gave us parchment, and is still a considerable town presenting some remains, both Greek and Roman, to repay the trouble

of visiting it. The main line holds on up the Hermus basin, passing Sart, once Sardis, the rich capital of Lydia, where by the banks of the Golden Pactolus Crœsus held his luxurious court, till tempted to dare his fate too far, heedless of the wise Solon's bidding him call no life happy till its end. This city, fabled to have been the origin of gold and silver coin and of dice, makes a striking illustration of the transitoriness of worldly glory, housing now only a few poor herdsmen, with a vast sepulchral mound for its principal monument. Thirty miles beyond the site of the Lydian capital the line brings us to Allah Shehr (City of God) at the foot of Mount Tmolus, where nothing

View of Pergamos, with the ruined Gateway of a Roman Theatre in the Foreground. From a photograph

is left of the ancient Philadelphia but the name of its faithful Church, represented by the seat of a Greek Archbishop. Hence this railway has been continued along the north side of the Kara Hissar range, to join, at Afium Kara Hissar, the line from Scutari to Konia. The southern line to Dineir is also marked out eventually to reach the same junction.

The Meander separated Lydia from the ancient Caria, beyond which, round the south-western corner, came Lycia and Pamphylia. The Gulf of Adalia here is named from a considerable town at its head, that boasts a triumphal arch of Hadrian. Some 50 miles to the south of it are the grand ruins of the pirate city Phaselis, and to the east the remains of old Adalia, which as Side was once a notable port; then farther eastward those of the ancient Seleucia; but few modern towns flourish on this coast. Behind the Taurus range, here running parallel to the south coast of Asia Minor, lies the Turkish

province that has Konia for its capital. Karamania, as this district is still called from the decayed town of Karaman, in mediæval days capital of an important state, is a high plateau dotted by large fresh and salt lakes, the largest of them, Touz Ghieul, about 50 miles long, separated by a mountain range from the course of the Kizil Irmak. From this plateau, through the Taurus, opens the cleft known of old as the "Cilician Gates", that lets pass the chief road down to the coast plains of Adana (Cilicia), on which pine and beech woods give place to arbutus, lentisks, groups of palms, and other sub-tropical vegetation. On the coast is the poor port Mersina, where legend makes Jonah thrown up after his singular voyage. This roadstead is connected with Adana, the principal town, by a short railway line, on which, below the opening of the Cilician Gates, stands Tarsus, the birthplace of St. Paul, once the rival of Athens and Alexandria by its academies, now supported by the copper-mining industry of the mountains.

The plains of Adana are watered by two considerable rivers, the Seihun and the Jaihan, coming down from the sides of the Taurus. The main range here trends north-eastwards towards Armenia, looking over a mountainous country full of minerals, which should be better exploited by help of the Baghdad railway, designed to pass through a gorge east of the Cilician Gates, then on to the Euphrates across a cultivated country, rich in fruit, grain, and cotton, the chief market for which is Marash, with a half-Armenian population of 40,000. On the wilder east side of the Cilician plain pastoral industry rather prevails. To the long valley stretching northwards here between the Taurus and the anti-Taurus crests, winter brings down a host of dwellers on those cold mountains, Turcomans, Tartars, Kurds, Circassians, and other races who make up the hodge-podge of population in this corner. On the eastern side the Cilician lowlands are cut off from Syria by the Amanus branch of the Taurus running down to the north-east corner of the Gulf of Iskanderoon, which Europeans call rather Alexandretta, from its conquering godfather's name in more familiar form. Thus, over Asia Minor we come constantly upon great names where other greatness has long crumbled away. All Cilicia shows the remains of vanished culture, "a vast Pompeii where no man has built or destroyed", as Mr. Hogarth says (*A Wandering Scholar in the Levant*). "In its capital, Olba, citadel, walls, streets, and roads are choked with brushwood. A triple arch leads into the Forum; on the left the façade of a Temple of Fortune stands in the brake, and in front rise the fluted columns of the Olbian Zeus, whose priests were kings. Passing a ruined portico, the explorer lights suddenly on a theatre lined with tangled vegetation sprouting from every crevice in auditorium and scene. But nothing in the city is more wonderful than the road leading from it to the coast. Mile after mile its embanked pavement runs over the naked rocks; mile after mile stones, fallen or standing, inscribed with the titles of Roman emperors, record your progress; here you pass a group of tombs, there clatter through an ancient village, and at last wind down sweeping curves to the sea, past towers and tombs rising white out of the scrub; and nowhere in the towers or the villages, on the road or in the city, is there a human being except the wandering shepherds."

Before leaving Asia Minor we must turn back to its coast-line to see how time has dealt with the beautiful islands where once flourished Ionian wealth, enterprise, and culture. The deeply-indented and wildly-broken western shore

is thickly set by the Ægean Archipelago, those "Isles of Greece" still so dear to the Muses, which are divided between Asia and Europe. The Sea of Marmora shares its name with a marble-quarried eminence, chief among a picturesque string of rocky islets which stud its waters. Outside of the Hellespont comes that island group of classical fame—Lemnos, whose volcanic rocks engendered the legend that here Vulcan fell when hurled from the abode of Jove; the rugged heights of Imbros rising to nearly 2000 feet; and beyond it, the red marble mass of Samothrace, with Tenedos to the south, each the home of some few thousand peasants and shepherds, mostly Greek. South of them lies Mitylene (Lesbos), birthplace of Alcæus and of Sappho, the largest, richest, and one of the most beautiful of these islands, over 30 miles long, with two grand natural harbours running into the well-cultivated mountain sides that in its Mount Olympus rise to 3000 feet. It has over 100,000 people; and an old castle of its former Italian masters gives the chief town the modern name Kastro. A second Kastro is the capital of Scio, farther south beyond the Gulf of Smyrna, another rich island cruelly desolated by the Turks in the war of Greek Independence, when it was noted for the beauty of its women as for the turbulent boldness of its born sailors. The bold promontory opposite, that shuts in the southern side of the gulf, is almost insular. The next large island, Samos, at the mouth of the gulf on which Ephesus stood, though cut off by only a mile of sea from the mainland, has the peculiarity of a quasi-independence, in which its 40,000 inhabitants live under a Greek prince tributary to the Porte; and as its neighbour claimed the "blind old man of Scio's rocky isle", so Samos can boast such names as Polycrates and Pythagoras. Then comes the string of the Sporades, the chief of which, Cos, with 10,000 people, names the next deep gulf on the mainland; but the most famous is that little Patmos to which St. John was banished, as commemorated by a great monastery crowning the island, and by another containing a cavern wherein the Apocalypse is declared to have been written. Last of the chain, leaving out of sight the outlying Scarpanto and Caxo that continue it towards Crete, we have Rhodes, second in size to Mitylene, but perhaps most famous of all for its Colossus, that wonder of the old world, and for the establishment here of the knights of St. John, who during more than two centuries held it against the power of the Turks. The capital town, Rhodes, represents one of the great Dorian cities, of whose magnificence fewer traces remain than of the fortifications left by those military monks, though their massive works have suffered much from earthquakes, and by a ruinous powder explosion in 1857. The whole population is now some 30,000. The island is traversed by mountains rising to nearly 5000 feet, above romantic scenery and cultivated slopes. In general these islands "where all, save the spirit of man, is divine", with a delightful climate, are in a high degree picturesque and productive, abounding in fruit, in wine, and in valuable stone, such as marble and jasper.

One more name of this region claims to be dwelt on more fully, as of peculiar interest to us. In the Mediterranean's eastermost bay, between the coasts of Asia Minor and of Syria, lies the large island of Cyprus, with its long Cape St. Andrea pointing like a finger towards the Gulf of Iskanderoon, as if to emphasize its natural connection with Asia, from which it has been differentiated by successive European encroachments. It was colonized by the Greeks

after the Phœnicians, and conquered by the Romans as by the Egyptians and the Persians. In 1878 it was ceded by Turkey to Britain, to be a Levantine Malta. This is not England's first connection with the island, for in crusading days it fell a prize to our Richard of the Lion Heart, in revenge for the capture of his Queen Berengaria by a Byzantine prince, who played the pirate here. Richard sold it to Guy de Lusignan, the adventurer king of Jerusalem, and from his heirs it passed into the hands of Venice, till her Othellos and Iagos could no longer keep out the still formidable Turk. To this succession of masters Cyprus owes an extraordinary confusion of remains, from Phœnician towers to mediæval castles, monasteries, and churches, mixed together like its heterogeneous population, in whose veins run the blood of so many races.

The inhabitants number over 200,000, most of them Greeks, and less than a quarter of Moslem faith. The rival creeds, as if schooled by alternating supremacy, seem to live together peaceably enough, though often in separate villages; indeed, Cyprus has one peculiar sect that practises both Christian and Mohammedan worship, seeking the double benefit of baptism and circumcision. In spite of its numerous and varied churches the island has a bad moral reputation, like that

> "Land where the cypress and myrtle
> Are emblems of deeds that are done in their clime,
> Where the rage of the vulture, the love of the turtle,
> Now melt into sorrow, now madden to crime".

Criminal offences appear to be unusually numerous here, under the fair and humane administration of British officials, who maintain freedom of religion and of opinion. The head of our Government is the High Commissioner, assisted by a council, in part elected; but talkative Greek patriots, taking only too kindly to free speech, prove less a help than a hindrance in the beneficent working of liberal institutions.

Cyprus, 145 long by 50 or 60 broad, has an area of some 3700 square miles. Along the north and south run mountain crests in which the Taurus once more rises from the sea, the southern range, that repeats the sacred name of Olympus, rising to 6590 feet, snow-crowned in winter, while the other's best-known point is the low but well-marked ridge called Pentedactylon. Between these lies a bare plain, whose natural fertility has been marred by reckless destruction of the forests that once covered the mountains, causing the soil to slip down from their sides, and drying up streams which only for a few hours become rushing torrents after a storm. This matter is being seen to by our Government, which has constructed irrigation works, and nearly succeeded in exterminating the locusts that were another agency of destruction. Once the hills are replanted it is hoped to restore the fertility of the soil by an increased rainfall. Want of rain is the chief drawback to a climate in January like our June, with a clearness and softness which gave fitting environment to the celebrated ancient temple of Venus at Paphos, near the western end.

The productions of Cyprus are wheat, barley, cotton, tobacco, carobs, olives, and grapes, from which are made raisins, as well as a strong wine once more appreciated in Europe than it seems to be now. Coarse silk is produced and woven. Besides salt, the most important mineral is copper, which indeed has its name from this island. Sheep and goats are largely reared, the latter

accused of a share in the destruction of the forests. In spite of all disadvantages, and of a backward state of agriculture, the prosperity of Cyprus has steadily increased since we took it over, and its revenue would now show a clear balance of profit, if it were not burdened by an annual payment of nearly £93,000 to the power that half-ruined it. At this rate the Porte ought to be glad to get rid of most of its ill-managed possessions. One legacy it has left is swampy fever-breeding spots, which, till they were quartered in better-chosen sites, sapped the health of our unseasoned young soldiers under the beautiful mountain scenery for which Cyprus is famed.

The former capital was Famagusta, on the eastern bay, once renowned for its rich merchants, but the Turks allowed the harbour to silt up, so that it is

Cathedral of St. Nicholas at Famagusta, now a Turkish Mosque

now a scene of dilapidated fortifications and numerous abandoned churches, the chief buildings being the shell of the Venetian palace, the fourteenth-century cathedral degraded into a mosque, and the citadel, still showing the Lion of St. Mark, that is the main scene of Shakespeare's great tragedy. From Famagusta a railway runs across the island. The best roadsteads are at Larnaca and Limasol on the south coast, and a port for small craft has been made at Kyrenia on the north side. The chief town and seat of the government is Nicosia, below the Pentedactylon range, a place that is said to have once had three hundred Christian churches among its Oriental bazaars and tortuous alleys; and here still appears a striking medley of old and new, of eastern and western architecture, matching the motley character of the people, whom Mr. W. H. Mallock depicts as forming dissolving views in the streets. "The brown, brigand-like shepherd, with the breath about him of the plains and of the mountains; the old majestic Turk, with his long robes trimmed with fur; the lean Greek priest

with his unshorn, dangling hair, followed by a bevy of boys with garlands for some saint's shrine; buxom Armenian ladies, with bursting velvet bodices and heart-shaped silver buckles; the muleteer on his mule, with long lance-like goad; and again, strangest of all, the gliding Turkish women, veiled from head to foot in their flowing yashmaks." To which types must be added the British official in his sober tweeds, the British soldier in his familiar uniform, and here and there the British tourist taking a secure peep at the East.

SYRIA AND PALESTINE

The modern Syria is formed by a strip of mountainous land that separates the coast of the Levant from upland plains sloping down towards the deserts of Mesopotamia and Arabia. In the north this elevated strip is some 150 miles broad; in the south, Palestine contracts to 50 miles or so between the sea and the deep Jordan valley. In the centre the mountains take most definite shape as two parallel chains, the Lebanon and Anti-Lebanon, the former's highest points displayed 10,000 feet over the shore-line, so as powerfully to strike the imagination from far—

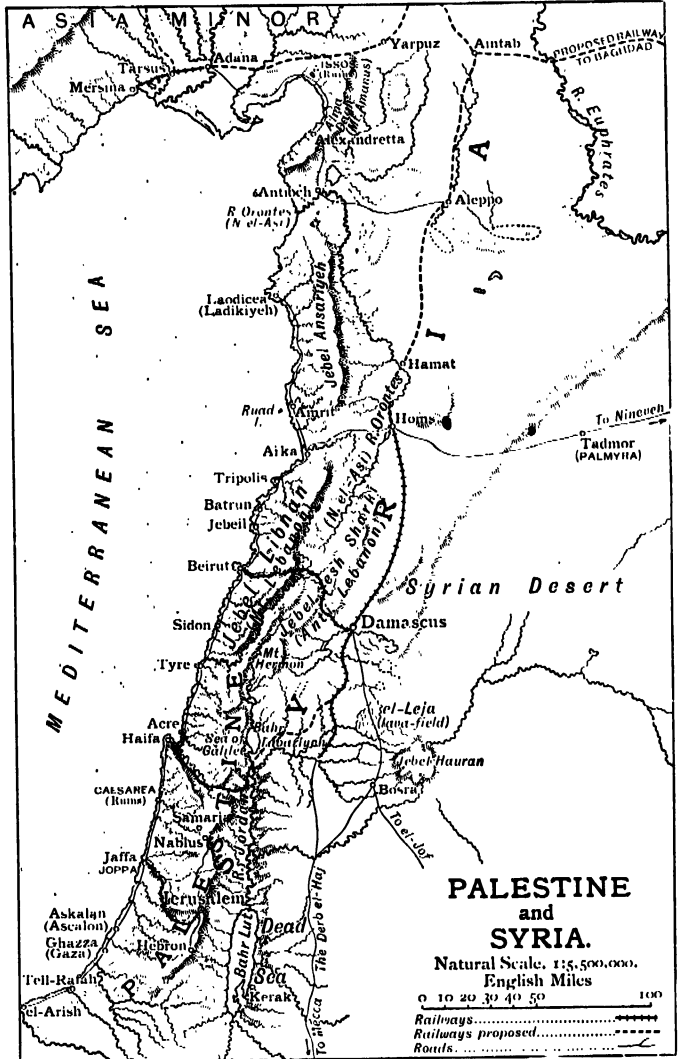
> "Sainted Lebanon,
> Whose head in wintry grandeur towers
> And whitens with eternal sleet;
> While summer, in a vale of flowers,
> Is sleeping rosy at his feet".

It has been conjectured that the name Syria was a synonym of the flowers that still bloom on its plains. An older name is Phœnicia, for part of this coast was the home of the first great trading and colonizing people of the old world, that found a way even to the remote Britannic islands on which was to fall the inheritance of their enterprising spirit.

Alexandretta, already mentioned at the north end of the Syrian coast, is a small town among feverish marshes, but important as harbour for the trade of northern Mesopotamia, and likely to gain increased consequence through a branch of the Baghdad railway. European merchants take refuge from the climate at Beilan on the heights of the Amanus behind, through which, by the pass of the "Syrian Gates", runs a great caravan route to Aleppo, 60 miles inland, the chief commercial centre of the middle Euphrates basin. Aleppo or Haleb was at one time the most flourishing city in Turkish Asia, with a population a century ago of some 200,000, reduced now by half. In 1822 it was ruined by severe earthquakes, which have brought this advantage, that a great part of the place has been rebuilt in a better style than the cramped and squalid streets thus destroyed; but there remain as monuments of its old dignity, the towering citadel and the solid Roman aqueduct. It stands on the plain of the Koik river, among gardens, whose pistachio-nuts are renowned, as is also the silk production of the neighbourhood; and Aleppo has still a considerable industry in ornamental fabrics, besides its business in the transit of coffee, gum, wool, olives, and other wares brought here by caravan routes from Mesopotamia, Arabia, and Syria, and now by a railway from Beyrout.

The road from Alexandretta to Aleppo passes near the Lake of Antioch,

to the south of which that "Queen of the East" was once a great city of over half a million people, where now some 10,000 to 20,000 live among the extensive ruin wrought to Roman and Moslem grandeur by wars as well as earthquakes. At Antioch, we know, the disciples were first called Christians; St. Peter is said to have been its first bishop; it was one of the goals of the Crusaders; and it preserves its ecclesiastical note as title for Greek, Latin, Armenian, and Nestorian patriarchs, who have now their seats elsewhere, while the remains of a noble temple of Apollo recall the religion which these churches overthrew. The present shrunken town stands about 20 miles from the sea, upon the Orontes, the chief river of Syria, that for most of its course runs parallel with the Lebanon, then here turns westward to the Levant through the plain of Antioch.

To the south of the Orontes, on the coast, comes Latakia, one of several *Laodiceas*[1] of the ancient world, this one erroneously identified with the site of that early Christian Church, but authentically known to us by its tobacco. This makes a southern outlet for the trade of Aleppo; but, sharing the decay of Antioch, it has become a poor place; and the arts that once flourished here are now represented by an ingenious forgery of Greek and Roman coins to be passed off upon foreigners. Southwards, 70 miles, Tripoli is another port, notable as one of the best-built towns in Syria, with 20,000 people. But of all the Syrian harbours, the most flourishing is Beyrout (Beirut), farther south, which comes second only to Smyrna in the commerce of the Levant. Besides its trade, it has manufactures of silk, wool, and pottery, and the whole district is much engaged in olive growing and silk-worm rearing. The city stands upon a tongue of land, with a central public square or garden and a broad main street

[1] Also written *Ladikiyeh*. Seleucus Nicator is said to have founded seven towns in honour of his mother Laodicea.

containing the European consulates, whose officials have their homes on the green heights above, against which a fine show of colour is made by the white buildings and red roofs rising in terraces from the blue Mediterranean. The back streets, as usual, are narrow, winding, and dirty, but a few years ago a vigorous effort was made to cleanse them by an active governor who, braving unpopularity like one of our own British pashas, had a massacre made of the troops of pariah dogs that, as at Constantinople, are allowed their unsweet will of the city. It has gas-works and other signs of progress to show. The population, growing over 100,000, with Arabic as its common language, is a very mixed one of Turks, Greeks, Syrians, Jews, Armenians, and Europeans, among

Cedars of Lebanon

Photo. Bonfils

whom the French take the lead, most of the trade of this coast being with Marseilles. More than half the people are Christians; this city is base of a Catholic missionary work, as also of an American mission to the motley faiths of Syria. There is a considerable congregation of Protestants; and the education provided by foreign institutions, prominent among them an American college, perhaps more than their religious teaching, has been notably affecting the inhabitants of the Lebanon.

From Beyrout improved roads run along the coast, and over the Lebanon to Damascus, 90 miles inland, with which great city it is also connected by a light railway. The main Lebanon range stretches behind the coast for nearly 100 miles, forming an almost continuous ridge whose highest point is Dhor-el-Khodib (over 10,000 feet), to the south of Tripoli. A long, narrow valley, anciently known as Coele (*hollow*) Syria, separates this from the more broken mass of the Anti-Lebanon, which rises at the southern end to over 9000 feet in

the ridge of Mount Hermon. The cedars of Lebanon have almost disappeared, their fame being preserved by scattered groves, in one of which a group of patriarchal trunks is fondly revered as contemporary with those from which Solomon's temple was built, and twelve huge ones are fabled to have sprung from the staves of the Apostles. Pines and poplars are now the characteristic timber of the upper parts. The lower slopes are well wooded, often by sprinkled oaks, giving the green slopes the aspect of an English park; and fields and gardens flourish in the valleys and about lofty villages. The "Golden Wine" of Lebanon is renowned. The inhabitants are chiefly Maronites and Druses, the former predominant in the north, the latter in the south, often living side by side, once quietly enough, but during last century in a state of ferocious feud, which called in the interference of Christian powers, France in particular claiming

Druses at a Meal

Photo Bonfils

the privilege of protecting the Syrian Churches. Under the force of European indignation at such slaughter as has often soiled its dominions, the Porte was stirred into vigorous interference; and of late peace has been preserved, though from time to time the Druses break out in acts of violence, then seek sanctuary in the wild Hauran district to the south-east, where the larger part of this race long preserved a quasi-independence. They appear to be gradually abandoning the Lebanon; and in the Hauran they have Bedouins and Circassians as formidable neighbours, with whose assistance the Turkish Government has been able to school them into submission.

The Druses are a people of doubtful origin, whose faith seems an amalgam of various creeds, probably owing most to Mohammedanism, if not to aboriginal paganism, while attempts have been made to trace it to Simon Magus, to the northern tribes of Israel, and to Indian sages; it has even been suggested that they may represent some stranded detachment of Crusaders. They have neither priests nor temples, but revere a prophet named Hakim as a manifestation of

the divine. Their women go not always veiled, sometimes wearing long horns which are a curious feature of their costume. The men are brave, manly, and proud mountaineers, with the defects of these qualities. Still more mysterious are the origin and faith of the Andarieh or Nusarieh, who live in the northern Syrian mountains and are found scattered over into the Taurus. They seem descended from the Nazarini, who may be the ancient sect of the Nazarenes. While outwardly professing Mohammedanism, they cherish rites and traditions into which their youth are secretly initiated, and which they will not communicate to strangers. Yet another strange sect is that of the Ismaelites, believed to represent the "Assassins", followers of Hassan, that "Old Man of the Mountain" who was a bogey to the Crusaders: their head is now Agha Khan, a cultivated Indian gentleman. The caverned cliffs of the Lebanon naturally afforded a congenial refuge to retiring or persecuted creeds. Its Maronite inhabitants, as we have seen, hold a peculiar Christianity. Other Christians are divided between the Latin and the Greek Church, while a considerable proportion of them, known as Melchites, keep Greek rites and discipline, but have been persuaded to come under the wing of Rome. Christians of some sort or other form the majority of the population; and European influence also being so strong here, the Turkish Government has been moved to form the Lebanon into a separate district under a Christian governor.

Over the Anti-Lebanon, we come down into the plain of Damascus, watered by streams flowing from the eastern side of this range, to lose themselves in closed lakes beyond the famous city. An oasis of 30 miles circumference encloses Damascus, the chief place of Syria, which boasts to be the oldest city in the world; and certainly, alone among those old enough to be mentioned in the days of Abraham, it is still a busy centre of picturesque Oriental commerce, with a population put at over 200,000, not equalled even by Smyrna in Turkish Asia. Among the Arabs it is so renowned for grandeur and beauty that their legend makes the Prophet refuse to enter its walls, not to dim the glories of the heavenly paradise.[1] This name for beauty it largely owes to the contrast of the barren desert around its ancient walls with the many-tinted greenery, festooned by the famous Damascus roses, embowering "a city of hidden palaces", as Kinglake found it; "of copses, and gardens, and fountains, and bubbling

[1] "For miles around us lay the dead desert, whose sands appeared to quiver under the shower of sunbeams; far away to the south and east it spread like a boundless ocean; but there, beneath our feet, lay such an island of verdure as nowhere else perhaps exists. Mass upon mass of dark, delicious foliage rolled like waves among garden tracts of brilliant emerald green. Here and there the clustering blossoms of the orange or the nectarine lay like foam upon that verdant sea. Minarets, white as ivory, shot up their fairy towers among the groves; and purple mosque-domes, tipped with the golden crescent, gave the only sign that a city lay bowered beneath those rich plantations. One hour's gallop brought me to the suburban gates of Mezzé, and thenceforth I rode on through streets, or rather lanes, of pleasant shadow. For many an hour we had seen no water; now it gushed, and gleamed, and sparkled all around us; from aqueduct above and rivulet below, and marble fountain in the walls—everywhere it poured forth its rich abundance; and my horse and I soon quenched our burning thirst in Abana and Pharphar. On we went, among gardens, and fountains, and odours, and cool shade, absorbed in sensations of delight, like the knights of old who had just passed from some ordeal to its reward. Fruits of every delicate shape and hue bended the boughs hospitably over our heads; flowers hung in canopy upon the trees, and lay in variegated carpet on the ground; the lanes through which we went were long arcades of arching boughs; the walls were composed of large, square blocks of dried mud, which in that bright, dazzling light somewhat resembled Cyclopean architecture, and gave I know not what of simplicity and primitiveness to the scene. At length I entered the city, and thenceforth lost the sun while I remained there. The luxurious people of Damascus exclude all sunshine from their bazaars by awnings of thick mat wherever vine-trellises or vaulted roofs do not render this precaution unnecessary. The effect of this pleasant gloom, the cool currents of air created by the narrow streets, the vividness of the bazaars, the variety and beauty of the Oriental dress, the fragrant smell of the spice-shops, the tinkle of the brass cups of the seller of sherbets—all this affords a pleasant but bewildering change from the silent desert and the glare of sunshine."—Eliot Warburton, *The Crescent and the Cross.*

streams. The juice of her life is the gushing and ice-cold torrent that tumbles from the snowy sides of Anti-Lebanon. Close along on the river's edge, through seven sweet miles of rustling boughs and deepest shade, the city spreads out her whole length." Such poetic descriptions, indeed, are dashed by the warnings of later travellers that these crystal streams prove infected by microbes, so as to make perilous drinking. For Europeans another drawback is in the fanatical

Photo. Bonfils

A Corridor in the Grand Mosque, Damascus

spirit of a city that contains some 250 mosques and medresses, in which, little more than a generation ago, thousands of Christians were cruelly massacred.

The "Street called Straight" is still a main thoroughfare, and strangers are shown the house of Naaman, appropriately turned into a leper-hospital, the house of Ananias, and a window as that from which St. Paul was let down in a basket; few Syrian spots mentioned in holy writ have failed to be thus identified to easy faith. For a city of such antiquity, this one has few authentic relics to show, but it preserves its old Citadel from Crusading days, and its chief mosque

ranked once, as Cathedral of St. John, among the finest of early Christian shrines. The great sights are the bazaars, with their display of manifold merchandise brought here from all quarters by caravans, and now by rail. Besides railway-stations, Damascus has tramways and gas-works as touches of modern prose upon its Oriental romance, and its streets are better paved and provided with side-walks than is common in the East,[1] the chief thoroughfare being even roofed with corrugated iron. Its famous manufactory of Damascus blades and "damascened" steel, inlaid or encrusted with the precious metals, has long gone, forcibly removed by Tamerlane to his own country; but its confectioners and jewellers are still in repute, and it makes sadlery, carpets, damasks, silk fabrics, essences, oil and soap, and other wares, besides those that pass tnrough it from Europe and the East. It is also a rallying-point of pilgrim caravans to Mecca, an annual gathering threatened with the loss of some of its picturesque features by the slow construction of a railway to the holy city. This line already extends a good way south from Damascus, joining another that comes from the colony of Haifa on the coast.

Less than 100 miles south of Damascus, the chief city of the Hauran was once Bozrah, renowned seat of Og, King of Bashan, an important Roman station and old place of trade, which may be revived by the railway passing through this naturally fertile upland, its former prosperity attested by impressive ruins and abandoned towns built from the black volcanic rocks that litter its surface. Bozrah makes a centre of Turkish administration on the edge of the Arabian Desert. To the north of Damascus, Homs and Hamah are still considerable towns on the Orontes, and on the new railway-line from Beyrout to Aleppo, which may be pushed on to the Euphrates; but most of this part of Syria is a desert, a.. yet little explored, though it also the Arabs declare to hide the ruins of as many cities as there are days in the year. In the valley between the two Lebanon ranges the railway from Beyrout to Damascus takes one within easy reach of the magnificent ruins of Baalbek or Heliopolis, where, on a rocky platform strewn with gigantic blocks of stone, still stand six columns of a temple that was one of the ancient world's wonders, with the adjacent shrines to Jupiter and Venus, built by Romans about an altar of sun worship and adapted to Christian devotion till its costly buildings were pillaged and destroyed by one wave of Moslem fanaticism after another; but the conquerors, too, seem to have been moved to build houses of prayer among these stupendous piles; then an earthquake in the eighteenth century completed the wreck. Such feats of architecture were on a scale shown by one block nearly 70 feet long, that lies hewn in the quarry as if waiting for Titanic hands to raise it among as huge masses put in place by the builders of Baalbek, whose stately fragments look down so proudly on the mean village huddled about them.[2]

[1] As usual, the outside of the houses seldom gives much hint of the wealth of the inhabitants, unless in the gardens that enclose those of the better class. Strangers admitted, like the author of *Eothen*, to their interior, find here the refinements of Oriental luxury. "The lofty rooms are adorned with a rich inlaying of many colours, and illuminated writing on the walls. The floors are of marble. One side of any room intended for noonday retirement is generally laid open to a quadrangle, in the centre of which there dances the jet of a fountain. There is no furniture that can interfere with the cool, palace-like emptiness of the apartments. A divan (which is a low and doubly broad sofa) runs round the three walled sides of the room; a few Persian carpets (which ought to be called Persian rugs, for that is the word which indicates their shape and dimension) are sometimes thrown about near the divan; they are placed without order, the one partly lapping over the other, and thus disposed they give to the room an appearance of uncaring luxury."

[2] "A Syrian village is a hive of huts one story high (the height of a man), and as square as a dry-goods box; it is mud-plastered all over, flat roof and all, and generally whitewashed after a fashion. The same roof often extends

Not less famous are the ruins of Tadmor or Palmyra, that rise remote to the east of Syria far over the volcanic uplands bounding it towards the Euphrates plain. Tadmor, "the City of Palms", claims to have been founded by Solomon, and at one time rose to be a chief city of Asia, famed under its heroine Zenobia, "Queen of the East", who in vain confronted the power of the Roman emperors. It was finally destroyed by Tamerlane; but the remains of its colossal pillars, towers, and arches look down on a poor village of Arabs whose chief wealth is in the salt of a marsh that has blighted this once blooming oasis. When we turn back to the coast below Beyrout we find hardly less decayed those famous cities Tyre and Sidon, the London and

Photo. Bonfils

Scene on the River Jordan

Liverpool of the ancient world. In every direction this land is thickly set with ruins of the past, some discovered or identified only in our own time, some still awaiting the full examination made difficult and dangerous by the fierce Bedouins who have intruded from their deserts over the Syrian border.

over half the town, covering many of the *streets*, which are generally about a yard wide. When you ride through one of these villages at noonday, you first meet a melancholy dog, that looks up at you and silently begs that you won't run over him, but he does not offer to get out of the way; next you meet a young boy without any clothes on, and he holds out his hand and says 'Backsheesh!'—he don't really expect a cent, but then he learned to say that before he learned to say 'Mother', and now he cannot break himself off it; next you meet a woman with a black veil drawn closely over her face, and her bust exposed; finally, you come to several sore-eyed children, and children in all stages of mutilation and decay; and sitting humbly in the dust, and all fringed with filthy rags, is a poor devil whose arms and legs are gnarled and twisted like grape-vines. These are all the people you are likely to see. The balance of the population are asleep within doors, or abroad tending goats in the plains and on the hill-sides. The village is built on some consumptive little water-course, and about it is a little fresh-looking vegetation. Beyond this charmed circle, for miles on every side, stretches a weary desert of sand and gravel, which produces a gray, bunchy, shrub like sage-brush."—*Mark Twain.*

The drainage of the Lebanon is by four main rivers that have given it a claim to be the site of paradise: eastward by the Barada and other streams watering the plain of Damascus; by the Orontes and Leontes, that after flowing north and south respectively turn westward to the Mediterranean; and by a river which, rising in the hollow between the two ridges, flows due south to lose itself in the Dead Sea, its course, for the most part, being far below the level of the Mediterranean, through the longest and deepest chasm on that side of our globe, shut in by lines of heights continuing the Lebanon chains. This is the Jordan, in itself an inconsiderable stream, yet a mighty name in virtue of the influences that have spread from its basin. It leads us down to that small, stony, dried-up land, that has become holy to the leading nations of mankind, among whom so many of its hills, valleys, and streams are household words through "a poetry, a life, an instruction such as has fallen to the lot of no other history in the world". Once densely populated and covered with cities, Palestine sent forth its people to be an alien race in other lands, where they now number more than eleven millions, a good half of these downtrodden subjects of Russia, which takes a lively interest, at once religious and political, in their ancient home. France has long had an eye on Syria, as her coveted inheritance from the possessions of the "Sick Man", whose death-bed is so long delayed. Of late years Germany has shown a strong disposition to look here for a Naboth's vineyard. No proprietary designs on Canaan have been evinced by Britain, to which and to America it has been chiefly an object of sympathetic concern. But Britain, too, has vested interests to guard at this end of the Mediterranean; and it is a painful thought that the ground where "peace on earth" was proclaimed may any day become cause of an Armageddon among Christian nations.

Palestine, with its three Biblical divisions, Galilee, Samaria, and Judæa, is a country rather larger than Wales, in the main a limestone table-land seamed by hilly ridges and by thin water-courses, whose wide-spread renown clouds their natural insignificance. From Dan to Beersheba is not 200 miles. The whole population is about a million, but this has begun to increase of late years with greater security and facilities of travel. Not only have Christians fixed their homes here through religious sentiment, but efforts are being made to settle on their ancestral soil some of the poorer Jews from European countries, efforts at first frustrated through the abasement of these persecuted people and the dissensions of their patrons, but still being steadily pursued, and among Jewish enthusiasts even taking shape in aspirations to political ownership of their fathers' land. By capital and industry certain inland plains and strips of coast have once more been made to "bloom like the rose"; and the replanting of naked hills is said to modify a too dry climate that has withered up the palm-trees once characteristic of Palestine. The olive, the fig, and the pomegranate with its scarlet blossoms still flourish on suitable soil; another fruit-tree is the carob, whose pods, "husks that the swine did eat", are sometimes sold in our shops as "locusts". Interesting experiments of culture are being made, such as the introduction of the eucalyptus as an antidote to marsh miasma. The wild Arabs find themselves pressed out to the other side of Jordan; and those who remain are reduced to order. The more and more frequent visits of European tourists, and the deep interest of Christian nations in the soil of their faith, keeps the Turkish Government less inactive here than elsewhere;

so that this one province, among its Asian possessions, appears actually progressing. One railway has been made in the south; another in the north has long been designed. Roads also are being pushed on, though, indeed, they are sometimes allowed to fall quickly into disrepair after such a spasm of energy in this way as was shown upon the occasion of the German Emperor's visit. Better harbours will soon be called for by the growth of a trade whose chief export has hitherto been soap and oranges, with oil, raisins, wine, and tobacco as other increasing products.

The most prosperous colonies seem to be those of a German body known as the "Temple Society", who, looking for a forthcoming second advent of

Photo. Bonfils

Shepherd and Flock, Palestine

Christ in Palestine, have here planted communities after the model of the primitive Church. Though enthusiastic in their interpretation of Scripture, these Teutonic disciples show a practical spirit seldom found among Oriental devotees, building and cultivating in such a manner as to give a pattern for the improvement of the country. After many difficulties, chiefly thrown in their way by the authorities, they at last begin to thrive in this world's goods as well as in hopes of the next. Their chief settlement is at Haifa, once a dirty village at the foot of Mount Carmel, now a town of neat, well-built, stone houses in rich gardens, with a little harbour where steamers take in the produce of a district that has enormously profited in wealth and civility by the worthy Germans' enterprise, to which is added the more mundane speculation of Greek bankers at Damascus. The majority of the population at Haifa are Christians,

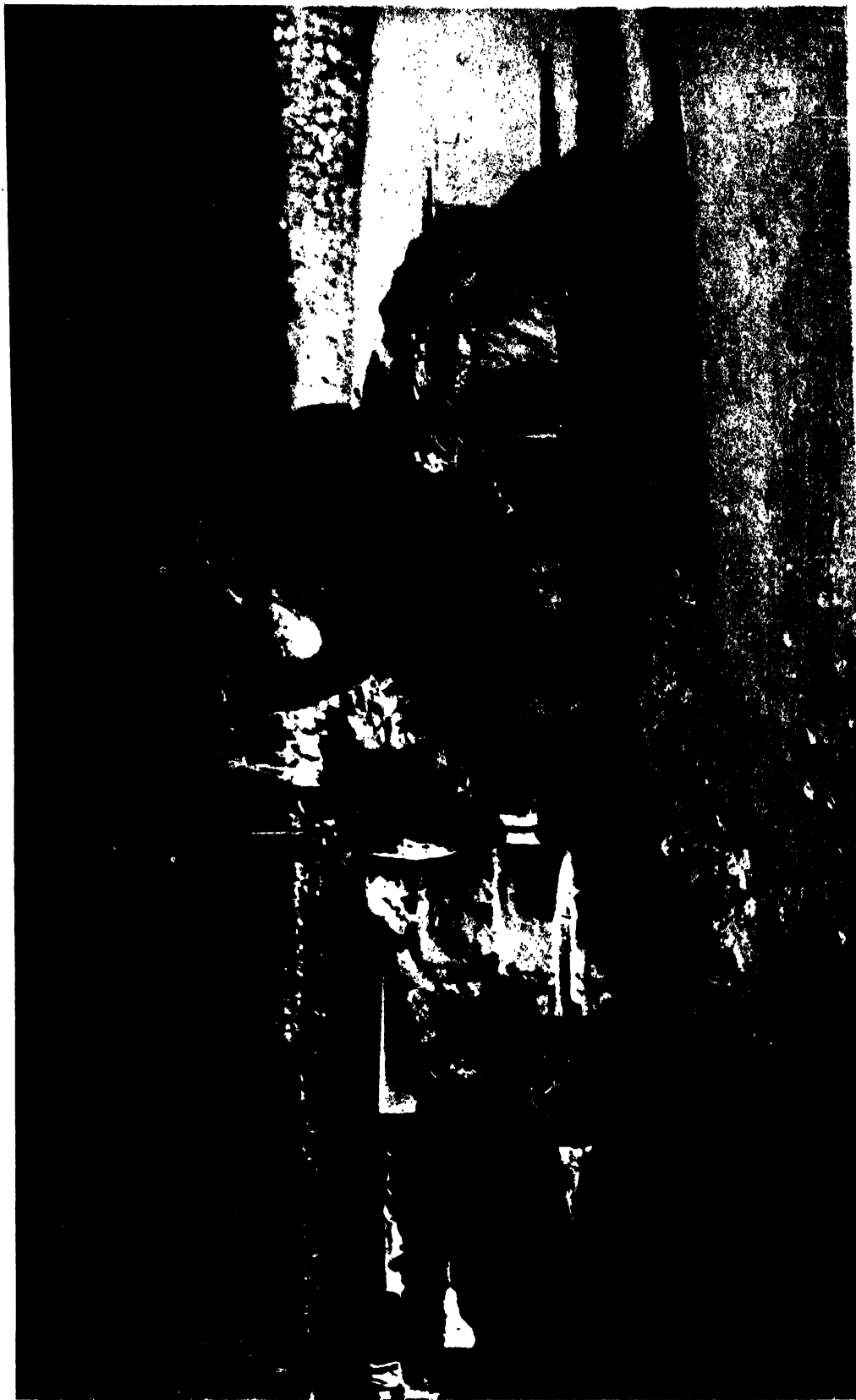
its core being that German community. A railway now carried inland, joining the line southwards from Damascus, should give a strong stimulus to this growing settlement.

Near Haifa the brook Kishon makes an effort to struggle over its bar into the only bay along the coast of Palestine. At the southern end of this, 10 miles from Haifa, lies the old town of St. Jean d'Acre, renowned in history from Crusading days to when Napoleon was here foiled by Sir Sidney Smith; and a still later episode was its bombardment in 1840 by allied European fleets during Ibrahim Pasha's usurpation in Syria. At one time the most populous place on the coast, Acre has now shrunk into a picturesque fortress showing traces of the Crusaders' work and fragments of carving from the ruins of Tyre and Cæsarea; but it, too, feels the reviving stir of its neighbour Haifa, from which omnibuses plied to Acre as the first wheeled vehicles in modern Palestine. The promontory here ends Mount Carmel, a low ridge over 12 miles long, rough with brushwood and pierced by hundreds of caves, which from time immemorial have given shelter to hermits of many creeds, as well as to less holy refugees, and among others to the Carmelite monks who clung to this height as a sacred garrison after the final withdrawal of the Crusaders. One of their repeatedly destroyed monasteries was scene of the massacre of Napoleon's wounded soldiers, whom he so heartlessly abandoned on his retreat from Acre. The present monastery, of later date, is supposed to stand over the cave of Elijah, and its inmates exhibit other scenes of his story that have as much authenticity as most of the "holy places" by which pilgrim piety is so freely exploited in Palestine. At Acre lives the exiled Bab teacher of Persia.

On the north-east side of Carmel the plain of Esdraelon opens into Galilee. This plain is one of the richest parts of the country, "a huge green lake of waving wheat with its village-crowned mounds rising from it like islands", dotted, too, with graves and spangled with flowers. Often has it been watered with blood since the days of Sisera, through long centuries of struggle in which Assyrians, Egyptians, Persians, Saracens, Crusaders, Arabs, and Frenchmen have struggled for conquest about the arena of that visionary battle of Armageddon. Across it, on a hillside, appears Nazareth, home of the "Prince of Peace", whose coming as yet has brought not peace to this corner of earth but rather a sword. Its few thousand inhabitants are chiefly Christians, among whom the Greek Church is in the majority, while the Latin Franciscans have here secured most of the venerated sites. Both bodies have their own convent and Church of the Annunciation; there is also a Maronite convent; and each set of monks is equally scandalized by Protestant tourists apt to pay too little reverence to the spots fixed on as "Joseph's workshop", "Mary's kitchen", and so forth. The Holy Family's house is not shown—has it not, indeed, been miraculously transported to Loretto?—but the pilgrim might take any of the dark, flat-roofed houses as type of that in which Jesus grew up among aspects of life little changed to this day. The town, however, seems to have prospered since it was asked: "Can any good come out of Nazareth?" and it is spoken of as to-day one of the pleasantest and cleanest places in Palestine.

Above Nazareth rises Mount Tabor, a green cone under 2000 feet high, generally taken as the scene of the Transfiguration, on which several Christian tabernacles have been built, and ruins of other shrines and strongholds attest

THE WELL OF THE MAGI, PALESTINE

The Well or Cistern of the Magi, shown to travellers a short distance to the east of the road from Jerusalem to Bethlehem, is said to be the place where the "wise men from the east" again saw the star whose first appearance had brought them to Judæa (see *Matthew* ii, 9). Tradition also says that Mary rested at this well on her way to Bethlehem for the Nativity; whence its old name of *Kathisma* (Greek for "sitting", "seat"), now corrupted to *Bîr Kadîsmû*. Wells have always been of great importance in Palestine, as in all lands with a similar climate.

Bonfils

WELL OF THE MAGI, NEAR THE ROAD FROM JERUSALEM TO BETHLEHEM

the reverence given to this height, as to Ararat, by its isolated position commanding a wide view over Galilee. Farther east a double-peaked eminence called the Horns of Hattin, the higher one, about 1000 feet, making "a gigantic natural pulpit", is held to be the scene of the Sermon on the Mount, below which, twelve centuries later, the Crusaders were routed by Saladin. The whole country is full of such "high places", offering themselves for worship and meditation, often overlooking half the extent of Palestine. Then we come down to the Lake of Tiberias, or Sea of Galilee, so often called as bulking largely in Christian minds, yet it is not much larger than Loch Lomond. This hill-encircled sheet, some 13 miles long by 6 at the broadest, hundreds of feet below the level of the sea, is an expansion of the Jordan, which higher up formed the smaller Waters of Merom. The lake is still full of fish, but there are few fishers to catch them., Only here and there boats now dot its blue waters; and by the shore, on the overgrown plain of Gennesareth, traces of ruin mark places identified more or less clearly with Magdala, Bethsaida, and Capernaum. The woods by which it was fringed have shrunk to a few palm-trees; and of all the cities flourishing under the Romans, Tiberias, noted for its warm baths, alone remains, come down to a squalid town which suffered much from the great earthquake of 1837. After the fall of Jerusalem this became a great seat of Rabbinical learning, the school of modern Judaism, and its few thousand people are still chiefly Jews.

Jerusalem, Hebron, Safed, and Tiberias are the four goals of Palestine pilgrimage for the Jews. Next to Jerusalem in Hebrew eyes ranks Safed, whose only Biblical association is a conjectural one with "the city set on a hill", but where, according to the Talmud, the Messiah will reign for forty years before being enthroned in Sion. This, among the mountains to the north of the lake, is to-day the largest place in Galilee, at least half its population being Jews. Many of these, sent from Europe by charity of their co-religionists to end their lives on the sacred soil, are idle bigots, who frown at the new strain of Jewish colonists transplanted here with the view of reclaiming the country, while the native Hebrews, with their fine features and picturesque garb, contrast strongly with those sallow outcasts of Europe in the high hats and greasy gaberdines that distinguish them among the backward nations by whom Jews are kept in abject separation. These poor refugees are accused of populating Safed with more than its due proportion of fleas, which might seem like the proverbial bringing owls to Athens. Safed is little visited by Christian tourists, yet it stands among romantically wild scenery, and from the Crusaders' castle on its craggy height there is a grand prospect on the hills of Samaria to the south, and westward on the volcanic ridge of Bashan, with the Lake of Tiberias in the foreground.

Southward the Jordan takes its crooked course through a hollow some ten miles wide, that deep rift, El Ghor, that is such an extraordinary feature of Palestine. Some years ago there was much talk of a canal which should rival that of Suez, opening from the sea at Haifa, carried across the plain of Esdraelon to the Sea of Galilee, filling up the Jordan valley, covering historic sites like Tiberias and Jericho, submerging the Dead Sea under a thousand feet of wholesome water, and thence to be continued through a shallower trough to the south, where only a low ridge and some 50 miles of desert would remain to be cut through before reaching the head of the Red Sea Gulf of Akaba. Of this bold project little has

been heard lately, the natural difficulties being hardly more forbidding than the national jealousies that would be excited.

"Cana of Galilee", Nain, the Valley of Jezreel, the Cave of Endor, Mount Gilboa, such are familiar names meeting us on the road from Galilee into the terraced hills of Samaria. Beyond the mountain ridge that ends in Carmel, southwards, is gained the central plain of Samaria, on which once was Israel's capital, but the ruins now left about a poor village are those of the Roman city Sebaste. Not far from this, among picturesque and cultivated hills, stands Nablous (Neapolis), the Shechem of the Old Testament, a considerable town and centre of government, where still survives a handful of the Samaritan sect, winnowed out by long persecution among Jews, Christians, and Mohammedans alike, that in its little synagogue treasures priceless ancient manuscripts of the law, one of which claims to be the oldest of written documents. Later ruins mark the site of the ancient temple on Mount Gerizim above, with Mount Ebal opposite it, the valley between green with almonds, peaches, olives, and cotton, and the slopes with vineyards fenced by hedges of huge cactuses. Jacob's Well and Joseph's Tomb are here pointed out. The chief industry of Nablous is the making of soap, for which there ought to be a greater demand in Syria. Its population, put at 20,000, is nearly all Moslem, and till lately has borne a bad name for turbulent fanaticism.

From Nablous a carriage road leads southwards into Judæa, passing by sites that preserve such names as Shiloh and Bethel. But as most travellers approach Jerusalem by sea, let us now return to the coast, bordered beyond Carmel by the Plain of Sharon, whose noted roses are rather red anemones, blooming among tulips, narcissuses, and other "lilies of the field", that include our familiar daisy. This naturally rich flat has of late years been colonized by a strange mixture of immigrants, among them a number of Bosnian Slavs driven from the Danube by the persecution known as the "Bulgarian atrocities"; and near these were settled a detachment of the very Circassian irregulars who carried out those atrocities. More than one tribe of Turcomans also have found their way here from the mountains of Asia Minor. What with German colonists, European Jews, and natives, Laurence Oliphant, who lived here for some years, could enumerate nine different races engaged in cultivating the soil within the space of an English county. He found the Slav colony at work among the ruins of Cæsarea, clearing away its ruins for streets of a new town, rebuilt out of the stones of Herod's temple, and of the mediæval cathedral. Founded by Herod the Great in the generation before Christ, this city still shows the colonial magnificence of Rome in the remains of its theatre, hippodrome, and aqueduct. The Crusaders had already used part of its Roman masonry to strengthen the castle they built at the end of a breakwater enclosing the harbour on one side, the jetty on the other side being formed by sixty or seventy prostrate columns lying in the water like stranded logs. The place now springing up anew upon successive layers of Roman, Byzantine, Moslem, and Gothic ruin may find need for a better harbour than that which has hitherto had for its chief business the shipping of water-melons, and of boat-loads of stone, quarried from palaces and temples, to be used at Acre and Jaffa.

Jaffa, or Yafa, as the old name Joppa has become, some way to the south of Cæsarea, is the chief port of Palestine, though not a very convenient one, as in rough weather steamers must lie outside the harbour, and the landing has

to be done in boats by the clamorous aid of Arabs who, to strangers, seem more like pirates than peaceful watermen. Once a great Phœnician harbour on the coast of the Philistines, it is of such prehistoric fame that near it a rock is shown as that on which Andromeda was bound when rescued by Perseus. One derivation of the name is from Jopa, daughter of Æolus; but Japhet has also been claimed as a still more ancient godfather. The house of Simon the Tanner and the tomb of Dorcas do not fail to be exhibited. This place of old memories and myths, after a long spell of insignificance, begins to flourish afresh among its orange gardens whose fruit is so well known to us at Christmas-time. Both

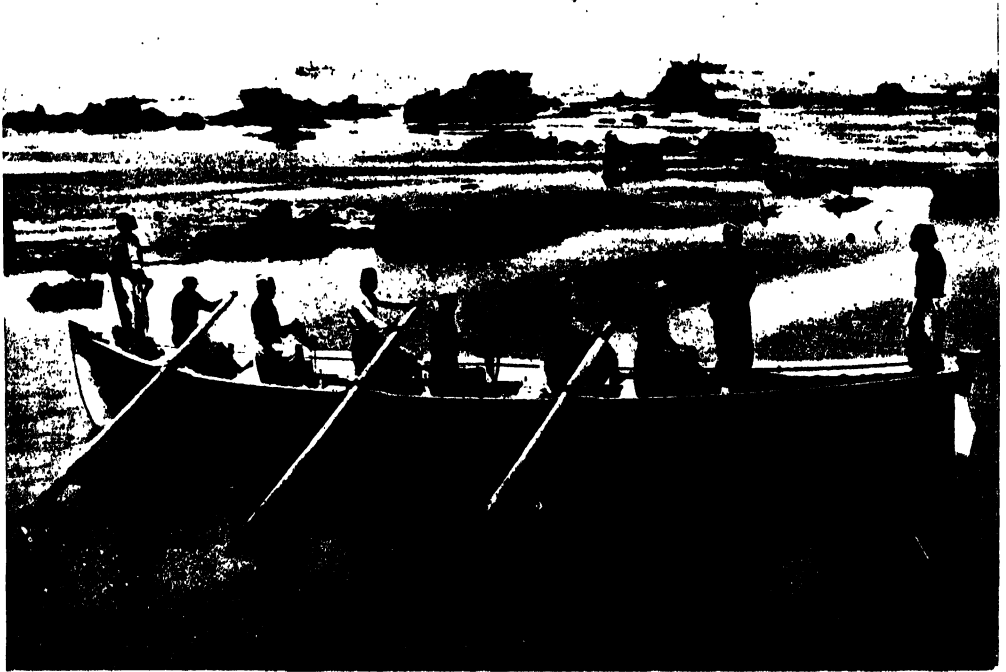



Photo. Bonfils

Boatmen at Jaffa

Jewish and German colonies are now settled in the vicinity, where has been founded by the Israelite Alliance a large agricultural college for giving the Hebrew outcasts of European cities much-needed instruction in a kind of industry long unfamiliar to their race. But perhaps the principal business of Jaffa is in entertaining and forwarding the pilgrims who have long used this as a starting-point for Jerusalem, in numbers that will go on increasing now that Jaffa is a railway terminus with more than one hotel, besides the religious hospices that entertain poorer travellers, and the tourist agencies that have sprung up for the guidance of tourists. That tourists should appear in larger numbers—*Cook duce et auspice Cook!*—now that the trip is made more easy, is to be expected; but *bonâ fide* pilgrims also, of both the Greek and Latin Churches, are more and more taking advantage of the facilities for travel. Russians especially come in thousands yearly, ignorant believers on their side of Europe willingly catching at the chance of such a visit to sacred shrines as all over the East counts high

among means of grace. So Jaffa's population of some 20,000 is kept astir by ship-loads of strangers coming and going on the road to Jerusalem, which is under 40 miles away eastward.

Besides a good carriage road, there now runs from its port to Jerusalem a railway which, in answer to fastidious sentimentalists who profess to be shocked by such an intrusion on holy ground, might plead that it runs only one train a day, a journey of three or four hours by a less direct line than the road. The chief place on the way is Ramleh, believed to be Arimathea, at the crossing of roads from the sea to Jerusalem, and from Egypt to Syria. Here self-exiled monks entertain pilgrims at their first station in the Holy Land; but the Crusaders' Church has been turned into a mosque beneath which forty tombs of nameless martyrs are claimed by each creed for its own. By a line of now abandoned towers, that within the last half-century were found necessary to guard it against plundering Bedouins, the road goes over the Valley of Ajalon, and near several spots more or less clearly identified with scenes of Bible story; past also such novel features as restaurants and cafés among the old religious rest-houses, it reaches the height from which opens a view of the Sacred City that has brought tears to many a dry nineteenth-century eye, as it moved the stern Crusaders to end their march, stripped and barefoot, in guise of penitents rather than of mailed warriors.

Jewish Rabbi, Jerusalem — Photo. Bonfils

The view of Jerusalem, however, is less striking on this side than from the east, where the elevation of the ground shows the old city better displayed on its cluster of heights, surrounded by stout battlements and entrenched by deep ravines, its chief edifices rising above a close-packed mass of walls and domes, buried beneath which lies layer upon layer of the ruins of war and earthquake. Modern buildings, now spreading without the walls, break increasingly upon its venerable dignity, for since the open country was made safe, and the city more accessible, both Jews and Christians come to settle in greater numbers about a city that, under its Moslem name, El Khuds, is sacred also to the followers of the Prophet. The population, vastly reduced from the multitude crowded here at the time of the great siege by Titus, seems to have at least doubled in

the last generation, and is vaguely reckoned at 50,000 or more, the greater part of them Jews. Pilgrims also are more numerous,[1] Russia contributing the largest contingent; and even from practical America there come not only tourists but religious enthusiasts, a body of whom have transplanted themselves to sacred soil in expectation of the second Advent, undeterred by the fate of a like-minded band that fell into sore straits at Jaffa a generation ago. There is no place that focuses the veneration of so many hostile faiths and peoples. This manifold piety brings no small gain to the inhabitants, who drive a flourishing trade in crucifixes, rosaries, and other mementoes of pilgrimage, besides the revenue of loathsome beggary and the many contributions at the shrine of that oriental god, Backshish.

Jerusalem stands upon a central ridge of table-land, almost the highest ground in Palestine, 2500 feet above the sea, overlooked, indeed, by the Mount of Olives from the east, while southwards the hills rise to Hebron. This resembles that other great holy city, Rome, in its site upon a cluster of low heights, Mount Sion in the south, and Mount Moriah on the east side the most prominent points, looking down into the Valley of Hinnom and the deep course of the Kedron that form natural moats, while narrower ravines intersecting the city have in part been choked by the dust of ages. Hardly one undoubted structure remains from the days of Christ; but the narrow, dirty streets present a jumble of older and newer buildings as striking as the motley concourse of visitors, from the wild Arab devotee to the personally-conducted party of American tourists divided in their minds between a sentimental and a critical mood. There are some incongruous patches of modern life on the generally ancient aspect, especially in a growing new quarter to the west. The city has recently improved its water-supply; it has electric lights and telephones; and there is a talk of tramways to lead out to the famous sites of the vicinity.

The chief business of Jerusalem, in the exhibition of "holy places", has been conducted in such a way as to suggest a paraphrase of Boccaccio's story of the Jew converted to Christianity by considering how this religion could survive the profligacy rampant at mediæval Rome. Ever since the site of the Crucifixion was fixed, or in the significant Latin phrase "invented", under Constantine the Great, through a dream of his pious mother, St. Helena, who is believed here to have discovered the veritable cross, the identification of sacred spots has been pursued with the same readiness of belief, and their custody has become a matter of jealous heart-burning to set the most Catholic and Christian powers of Europe by the ears, long after the rescuing Crusaders had abandoned those shrines. Thanks to powerful protection that of late centuries could most readily bring pressure upon the Porte, the Greek Church has come off best in a contest which often set rival believers at blows on what they regard as the holiest spot of Christendom, and hundreds have perished in a tumultuous Eastern gathering about the scene of a supposed annual miracle, when frenzied devotees struggle to light their candles at a fire kindled by priestly jugglery. The burning of the Church of the Sepulchre at the beginning of last century was suspected as the work of sectarian incendiarism. The sects, as they would refuse to be called, have sometimes gone so far as to steal one another's relics. A kind of *modus vivendi* has been forced on the Churches that gave such perverse illustration

[1] In a recent year Christian pilgrims to Jerusalem were numbered at nearly 15,000, two-thirds of them from Russia, besides 3000 tourists, mostly from America.

of Christian love; and a monument of this arrangement is the dome built in common by France, Russia, and Turkey over the Church of the Holy Sepulchre, where still Turkish soldiers stand on guard to keep the Christians from each others' throats.

This edifice is really a group of shrines, the central part being the special property of the Greek Church, while the Latin Catholics, Armenians, Abyssinians,

The Greek Church Ceremony of "Washing the Feet" in the Outside Court of the Church of the Holy Sepulchre. (From a photograph.)

Syrians, and Copts have sanctuaries of their own, and jointly or severally claim proprietorship of the various exhibitions. The Sepulchre is a narrow chapel in which a blaze of stifling lights displays the marble slab marking the spot where Christ's body is held to have been buried. In suspicious proximity are crowded together, within the same enclosure, the rock of the Crucifixion; the stone rolled away from the Sepulchre; the pillar of the flagellation; the slab on which, or on the rock below it, Christ's body was laid for anointing; the

rock rent by earthquake; the stone on which Lazarus sat while the dogs licked his sores; the tombs of Adam, John the Baptist, and Joseph of Arimathea; the sword and spurs of Godfrey de Bouillon—in all some three dozen holy spots and relics, beheld by the more ignorant pilgrims with awe-struck admiration and kissed with passionate devotion, while on enlightened Christians the effect often is rather one of pained disgust at what has been bluntly called a show of "sacred shams". Signor Angelo di Gubernatis, writing from a fervent Catholic point of view, confesses to a "painful impression" on his first visit. Mr. Laurence Oliphant, who had a strong strain of fanaticism of his own, mixed with shrewd common sense, sums up the opinion of a good many Protestant visitors in the remark: "If the Churches had only taken half as much trouble to preserve the moral truths which are to be found in the teachings of Christ as they have to preserve a cave in which he was never buried, the world would have been so much the better instead of so much the worse for their exertions". Another enthusiast, General Gordon, who devoted much ingenious speculation to the subject, put forward a quite different scheme of the sacred sites; and the recent researches of the Palestine Exploration Society's officials and other competent explorers, if not altogether squaring with Gordon's view, have at least gone to unsettle the long-received dogmas on questions where certainty is neither possible nor truly edifying. "He is not here; He has risen", well reflected Dean Stanley.[1]

Better determined is the site of the Temple on Mount Moriah, its place now occupied by the group of Moslem fanes commonly known as the Mosque of Omar. Here a noble dome covers the rude mass of stone that was probably a high place of heathen worship long before David ruled at Jerusalem. This has been taken for the true Sepulchre, for the height on which Abraham was about to offer up Isaac, for the scene of Melchizedek's sacrifice, for the altar of the Temple; and Jews and Mohammedans look on it as the centre of the world; for which another spot is shown in the Sepulchre Church, a fond fancy

[1] "The great natural features, of course, must always remain. Bethlehem, Bethany, and the Mount of Olives are as they ever were, but there are two Gardens of Gethsemane, one claimed by the Latins and one by the Greeks. When we descend to more minute details, they are either purely mythical or at best only matters of vague conjecture. One of the best illustrations of the purely mythical is Christ's footprint on the rock from which he ascended into heaven, which is a good deal smaller than that of Buddha, which I have also seen on the top of Adam's Peak in Ceylon, or of Jethro, which the Druses showed me in Neby Schaib. Among those open to conjecture, the position of Calvary and the tomb of Joseph of Arimathea are points upon which research may still throw light. Every indication goes to show that Golgotha or Calvary was a knoll outside the Damascus gate, exactly in the opposite direction to that affixed by Christian tradition, and which would do away with the Via Dolorosa as a sacred thoroughfare, the street shown as that along which Christ bore his cross on his way to execution. It is agreed by all authorities that the high, south-western hill, to which the name of Sion has been applied since the fourth century, is that which Josephus calls the upper city, or upper Market Place. The site of the Pool of Siloam is also undisputed, and certain natural features have been determined, which serve as data on which to construct the walls of the ancient city, and fix the site and area of the Temple enclosure in the time of Herod. There is still some controversy in regard to the exact position and course of the city walls prior to its destruction by Titus, but this is chiefly maintained by those who are fatally affected in their religious sentiments. There is also a difference of opinion in regard to the area of the Temple building. Practically, however, this point has been settled by the great weight of authority on one side, which affirms that the present Haram enclosure, in which are situated the Mosque of Omar and the sacred stone, represent the area of Herod's temple, only one or two standing out for a restriction of this area. If the Turkish Government would only allow explorations to be made under the platform of the dome of the rock, the very rock upon which Abraham is supposed to have been ordered to sacrifice Isaac, and if the examination of the closed chambers known to exist on the north and east sides of this platform could be carried out, the controversy might be set at rest by actual discovery. Of the Temple of Solomon little is known, though it is possible that the great scarps in the present British cemetery may be as old as the time of David, or the eleventh century before Christ. They are, without doubt, the oldest existing remains in Jerusalem, and formed part of the ramparts of the upper city. Meantime, the most interesting spot which it contains, whether for Jew, Christian, or Mohammedan, is that mysterious dome of the rock, with its gorgeous mosque covering the sacred stone, which Christ himself must have regarded with as much veneration in his day as the adherents of the two other religions, so widely opposed to the one of which he was the founder, do now."—Laurence Oliphant's *Haifa*.

not unnatural at this magnetic pole of so many faiths. The temple of the conquerors has an air of solemn dignity wanting to that Christian cathedral with its monuments of feverishly exalted and divided enthusiasm. "On entering it," says Dr. Norman Macleod, "one is immediately and irresistibly impressed by its exquisite proportions, its simplicity of design, and wonderful beauty. Nowhere have I seen stained-glass windows of such intense and glowing colours. Indeed one of the marked features of the interior is the variety and harmony of colour which pervade it, caused by the marbles of the pillars and wall—the arabesque ornaments and Arabic inscriptions—the rich drapery hanging in the sunlight, with flickering touches everywhere of purple, and blue, and

Mosque of Omar, Jerusalem. (From a photograph)

golden-yellow, from the Eastern sun pouring its splendour through the gorgeous windows; while every Oriental worshipper, as he bends in prayer or moves about in silence, displays some bright bit of dress embroidered with gold or silver in the looms of Damascus, or possibly of India, and thus adds to the brilliancy of the scene."

Beside this, along with smaller shrines, is the Mosque of El Aksa, originally a Christian Church built over the rock vaults known as Solomon's Stables. These fanes are now open to unbelievers on due payment of fees, even to the despised Jew, who in his own land durst not enter the places sacred to the greatest of his race. The sanctuaries of Islam, too, have their fables. A footprint of the Prophet is pointed out, as elsewhere one of Christ, and even one of the cock which roused Peter's conscience. Then there is the "Flagstone of Paradise", described in Black's Guide to Jerusalem as "a jasper slab let into the pavement above the 'Sepulchre of Solomon', into which Mohammed drove nineteen golden nails, which at certain intervals drop through

to the tomb below. When they have all disappeared—at present only three nails remain perfect—the end of the world will arrive, and the Prophet will come to judge the faithful. The dragoman (probably at the instigation of the mosque guardians) usually improves the occasion by suggesting that backsheesh placed on the tomb will ensure the eventual admittance of the tourist—whether non-Moslem or not—into Paradise." From the outer wall, in Moslem belief, a bridge of fine wire will at the day of judgment give safe passage to the souls of the faithful, while the wicked will fall into the gloomy valley below that for more than one creed has shaped its type of hell.

Other sights in and about the Holy City are too numerous even to catalogue here; the Via Dolorosa and its assumed stations of the Cross; the Muristan with its relics of the Crusaders, now given to be the site of a German Church; the numerous convents of different brotherhoods, far from brotherly; the Citadel and Tower of David; the Wailing-place of the Jews; the Pool of Bethesda; the rock tombs and caves with which Jerusalem is mined like Rome by its catacombs, more than one of them maintained to be the real Holy Sepulchre; and the knoll which Gordon took for the true Calvary. These and many more spots are duly described in guide-books. Then, outside the city, few pilgrims fail to visit the rival gardens of Gethsemane, and to ascend the Mount of Olives, on the east, its ridge now topped by a German hospice and a great block of Russian sacred buildings, mutually suspecting each other for wooden Horses of Troy, the latter with a tall tower that commands a magnificent view over to the Dead Sea. Beyond this ridge lies the poor village of Bethany, in which the tomb of Lazarus makes a Moslem shrine, and the houses of Mary and Martha, and of Simon the leper, still stand for the edification of the credulous.

To the south a line of sacred names leads to Hebron, the first city of David, and one of the highest points of Palestine, a little over 20 miles from Jerusalem by carriage road. Six miles out comes Bethlehem, venerated by Jews and Mohammedans as the birthplace of David, and by Christians for the group of churches and cloisters that like a fortress guard the crypt where a rock recess, not unlike the chambers lining eastern caravanserais, is believed to be the manger in which Christ was born. Here, too, are the scenes of David's boyhood, of Rachel's burial, of the idyllic story of Ruth, and of the slaughter of the Innocents, commemorated by a chapel. The town thrives on the manufacture and sale of *objets de piété* and souvenirs; its population of a few thousand are chiefly Christians, said to represent a remnant of the Crusaders. Farther on come the Pools of Solomon, that still supply water to Jerusalem; then the Oak of Mamre, where Abraham pitched his tent; and the last stage of the journey is over the Vale of Eshcol, still showing its luxuriant vineyards. Hebron itself is one of the most sacred places of the Moslem world, scowlingly suspicious of strangers; and the mosque built over the tombs of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob in the Cave of Machpelah, is opened only to Christians of rare distinction, King Edward VII, as Prince of Wales, having been the first to enter by force of a special firman from the sultan.

Another excursion is eastwards to the Dead Sea, about the same distance from Jerusalem, a little longer by the usual road, now quite safe, and even in a manner practicable for cyclists, though upon strangers may be still impressed the necessity of a picturesquely armed escort. This way goes by the "Inn of the Good Samaritan" to Jericho, a reviving place, with several hotels

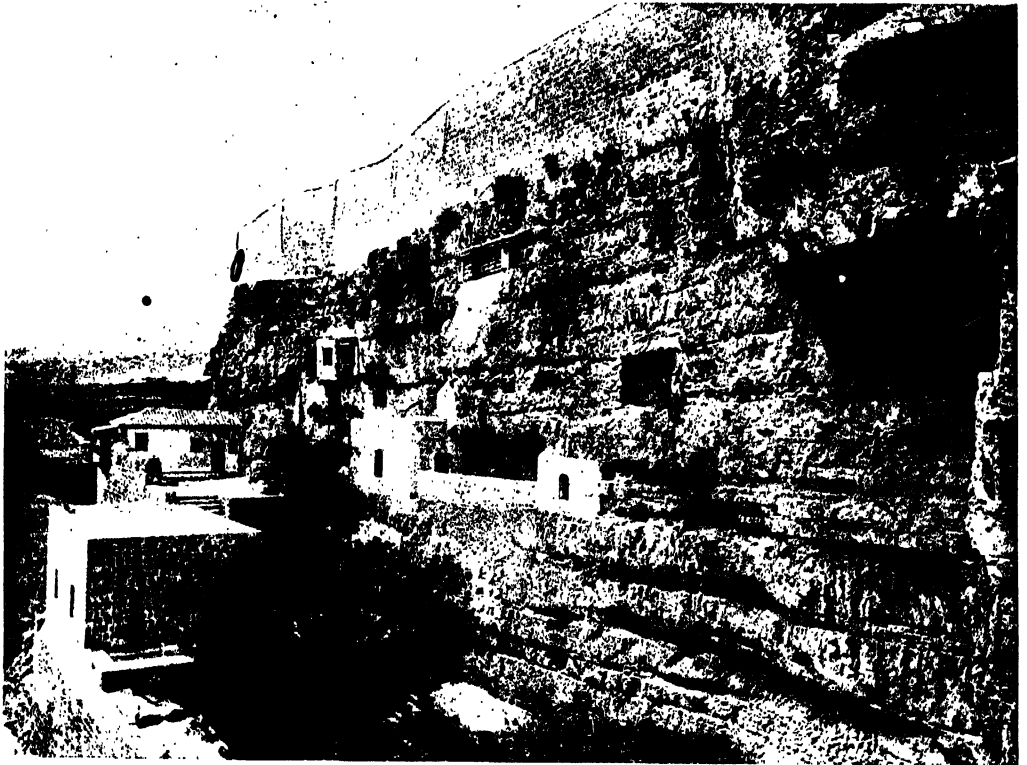
and a large Russian hospice for pilgrims; but the site of ancient Jericho, some little way off, is desolate, where German excavators have lately been turning up its walls. The climate is warm, for we now descend into the Jordan valley, depressed over 1200 feet below sea-level. Across the undulating sandy plain a winding grove of tamarisks marks the course of the Jordan, that runs so rapidly in flood that eager pilgrims rushing in to bathe have often been drowned in the turbid stream over which a strong man could easily hurl a stone, as a tourist of the dark ages reports. At Easter the "Pilgrim's Ford" here becomes a gipsy-like camping-ground for Greek Church devotees eager to be baptized in white garments, henceforth treasured to serve them as a shroud.

Monastery of Mar Saba

Photo. Bonfils

Opposite a commanding height said to be that whence Moses surveyed the promised land, above Jericho, the Quarantine Mountain, supposed scene of the Forty Days' Temptation, is crowned by a lofty monastery, and honey-combed by hermits' caves. Another monastery in the naked hills to the south is the famous one of Mar Saba, by which also the Dead Sea might be reached down the course of the Kedron and through the mountains of Engedi. This "hanging nest of bees and drones", built on terraces covering the face of an abrupt chasm, is a veritable fortress, as it would need to be, defending its inmates for centuries against the wild Bedouins, but again and again it has been sacked since the time when a myriad of anchorites were massacred in its cliff caverns. The courage, at least, cannot be questioned of the monks who occupied such stations in the hostile Holy Land. Their successors, who here lead a truly penitential life on bread and water, forbidden to look on the face of women, are understood

to be banished to this wilderness outpost of Christendom as a matter of discipline; and some of them may well be as crazed as the hermit whose mysterious retreat Sir Walter Scott fixes here in his *Talisman*, a tale, by the way, that robustly dispenses with topographical accuracy.

Into the Dead Sea, some fifty miles long by a few in breadth, and nearly 1300 feet at the deepest, vanish the sacred waters of Jordan. This sheet of water, bordered by lines of creamy foam, is beautifully blue, but foul with bitumen, nitre, and sulphur that scum its surface. An attempt to swim is a curious experience, the water being of such buoyancy that one cannot sink, then one falls into ludicrous struggles in kicking out; but laughter is what doctors call contraindicated, since a drop of the water upon lips or eyes burns painfully, and the taste is described as "a mixture of brine and rancid oil". To float on the surface, however, is easy, as those poor fellows found whom Vespasian flung in with their hands tied, by way of scientific experiment. Beneath this sheet, according to tradition, lie the wicked towns Sodom and Gomorrha. It is said that, contrary to a general opinion, its poisoned waters are not absolutely without life; certainly the myth is untrue that makes birds fall dead in passing over it. The trunks of palm-trees have been washed up on shore, as token of a once richer vegetation, in which at present the most notable feature is the so-called "apples of Sodom", proverbial for an ashy core beneath a blooming skin, a phenomenon apparently due to an insect, as in the case of gall-nuts. Commercial enterprise is now turning an eye on this reservoir of liquid minerals, as to the rich phosphate beds on either side of the Jordan valley. The Dead Sea would make a mine of chlorates, by which its water is more thickly impregnated in the depths than on the surface. It contains nearly 200 lbs. of salt to the ton, as against 11 lbs. in the Caspian, 18 lbs. in the Baltic, and 72 lbs. in the English Channel. Palestine is growing so much "up to date" that before long we may hear of some German syndicate utilizing these strongly mineralized waters for a *Kur*. Already a small German steamer was started on the sea, plying to a bay on the eastern side, into which comes a river from Kerak, the ancient capital of Moab, now a town of 10,000 people, among the ruins of a once well-populated country. This enterprise proved premature; but Cook's tours are pushed over into the Kerak country, where there must be still some risk of falling in with Bedouins who demand backshish in the masterful form of blackmail.

Opposite the lower and more jagged heights of Engedi, all along the east bank of the Dead Sea, stand like a wall the mountains of Moab, whose limestone cliffs and promontories, 4000 feet high, are edge of a plateau cutting off Palestine from the Arabian Desert. Northward this passes into the stony uplands of Gilead, southward into Edom, a wilderness of rocky heights and thirsty wadys. These inhospitable regions are now, for the most part, sparsely peopled by wild Bedouins; but Moab still has upland forests and tracts of fertile land watered by streams falling to the Dead Sea, while many a ruin shows how the country once was more civilized, as the extensive Roman remains of Djerash, on the edge of the Hauran, over which broken Roman roads may be traced to-day, sometimes marked by the original milestones.

The Dead Sea has extraordinary interest as a natural phenomenon. Other spots in southern Palestine would call for little notice but for their hallowed associations. Rounded hillocks topped by ruined towers and circled by ledges

of bare limestone, with green and gray hollows between, are the main features of the hilly plateau falling to the sea by a plain which was the ancient land of the Philistines. Here Ascalon stands ruined; but Gaza, as old perhaps as Damascus, with its Saracen citadel and its Crusaders' Church turned into a mosque, is still a small town of note as a market for the Bedouins of the desert; and while its harbour has been silted up, it makes a port for travellers launching out across that sea of sand, beyond which their weary eyes first bathe in green by the banks of the Nile. Southward the elevated wilderness of Beersheba merges with the Amalekite desert on a gradual descent that explains the Scriptural phrase "going down into Egypt".

The agents of our Palestine Exploration Society, along with explorers from other Christian countries, are doing much to open up the various remains of this historic soil, from Roman temples to crusaders' castles. Still older ruins have been discovered, as those of Gezer recently unearthed in Southern Palestine. At the same time the Syrians are learning to know the civilized world, not only through their many visitors, but through their own wanderings to distant lands. "Assyrians", so sometimes called in our colonies, are familiar so far off as Australia and North and South America, from which, as pedlars and the like, they may be able to bring back a small hoard that counts as fortune in their poor home. Education also makes way through the missionary colleges. Travellers in out-of-the-way parts are astonished to find how well informed the people may be without newspapers. Miss Lothian Bell (*The Desert and the Sown*) speaks of the favourable impression made on them by Britain's careful stewardship of Egypt. She also noted their interest in the victories of Japan, a country whose name may hitherto have been unknown here. This is but one instance of the stir sent all over Asia by the fact of a European power having been beaten in battle by Orientals. The Turk's dominion, for its part, seems too hopelessly divided between hostile races and religions to look for any better destiny unless under a new master.

Women Grinding Corn, Palestine

ARABIA

THE PEOPLE

This more famous than populous land again presents the question as to whether it should be treated apart. We have seen how its deserts and their sons encroach across the vaguely-defined frontiers of neighbouring regions. It forms a link, indeed, between Africa and Asia, being in its physical features more akin to the former; and its north-western corner is politically connected with Egypt, while greater stretches are more or less reduced under Turkish sovereignty. But the country has on the whole such a marked character, and its people have played so notable a part in history, that Arabia claims an independent place in our survey of the world.

The Arabs, like their kinsmen the Jews, are found widely scattered, but under circumstances that have usually given them a masterful rather than a servile place in other lands, over which their blood has been transfused among nations tempered by their fierce faith. The original lot of Isaac and Ishmael seems strangely reversed. Israel is a down-trodden exile, while the sons of outcast Hagar, conquerors abroad, are firmly settled in the peninsula taken by some ethnologists for the cradle of the whole Semitic race, where in a singular degree they appear to preserve the manners and thoughts of patriarchal days.

Those remaining in their ancient seat number only a few millions, enumeration being made specially difficult, not only by the wild independence to which they cling hard, but by an Oriental trait, very marked among the Arabs, which looks on counting of heads or possessions as a vain ostentation, likely to bring ill-luck. An Arab sheikh cannot, or will not, tell the strength of his band, and Turkish statistics as to the population of towns are never to be depended on. The more sophisticated Arabs who have settled down under the sultan's government as traders or *fellahs* are to be distinguished from the prouder Bedouins in whom rather survive the characteristic qualities of their race. Nomad is an epithet commonly given to these untamed tribes, who sometimes indeed remove to great distances; but as a matter of fact their range is usually a very determined one, fixed by chances of trade or robbery, or oftener by the need of shifting to fresh pastures; and no wanderers are more surely tethered by sentiment to some haunt which they call home.

The Bedouins are split up into clans and smaller tribes, whose prefix *Ben*, like the Celtic Mac, denotes them as tracing their descent from such and such an ancestor. Their government is truly patriarchal, and they look askance on the corrupt Turkish authorities to whom they may have to pay tribute and

formal allegiance. The sheikh of a band will usually be chosen from a family of hereditary chiefs; but there is a force of public opinion to depose any head who seems to fall short in justice or generosity, as in dignity or force of character; so popular election may come into play for an office likely to be of more honour than profit, and whose authority is as interpreter of the customs and sentiments that make the desert law. In some tribes, Burckhardt says,—in all, declares Palgrave,—there are judges or cadis recommended by wisdom as well as by right of birth. Other travellers speak of a kind of jury sitting upon doubtful cases. On the war-path it is customary, as among Red Indian tribes, to appoint as leader some man of his deeds, the civil chief for the nonce retiring into the background; so Mohammed and the early caliphs stayed at Medina, while their generals were sent forth to conquest. Another of several features, by the way, in which the Bedouins resemble the American Indians is their highly-trained ability for following a trail, and reading warning or guidance from slightest indications that would escape a European eye. Both races are alike in their position of what may be called superior barbarianism; but the Bedouins would seem to be less bloodthirsty than the Sioux or Comanche warrior. Their physical frame is lithe and spare, by temperance and exercise made capable of great endurance, with tawny complexions of various shades, black hair worn in greasy plaits, often with slight tufts of beard; the features well marked, in youth not seldom pleasing, but soon coarsening under the unscreened sun that strains their eyes into a fixed scowl.

In this one respect they show themselves still true children of Ishmael, that their hand is against every man not connected with them by ties of kindred or alliance. The tribes live in a state of chronic feud, often breaking out into war that, like their internal quarrels, is apt to be carried on with more noise and picturesque demonstrativeness than loss of life. As in the case of the Red Indians, while capable of devoted courage by fits, they have a very practical objection to taking risks; and when they catch an enemy at a disadvantage, their hereditary code of chivalry forbids needless slaughter. A battle is fought by rules, like a game, often as a series of single combats, and with spoil rather than bloodshed as its trophy. What has prevented the hostile troops of the desert from exterminating one another, as Burckhardt remarks, is the stern custom that gives the kin of the slain the right and duty of avenging his death on the slayer or his children's children, unless the blood be wiped up by atoning ransom. Though modified by the Koran, as by the law of Moses, this point of honour is so keenly upheld that an Arab does not lightly draw upon himself the inveterate hostility of a blood-feud. Cause for quarrel is always at hand in these hereditary hatreds, in disputes about watering-places and pasturage, and in individual acts of neighbourly aggression, which are like to take the form, so familiar on troubled borders, of "lifting" herds or flocks.

The unregenerate Arab is proud to be an enterprising robber, or, in many tribes, a clever thief. The plundering of travellers makes one of his favourite exploits, while he is as ready to turn an honest penny by tribute or blackmail paid him for protection, loyally afforded, a single conductor being escort enough through all tribes in kindred or alliance with his own. As children, sporting naked on the hot sand, the boys are sometimes taught to steal like little Spartans; then a young man shows himself fit for something by a bold and adroit raid upon some hostile camp, which may enable him to set up in life. If caught

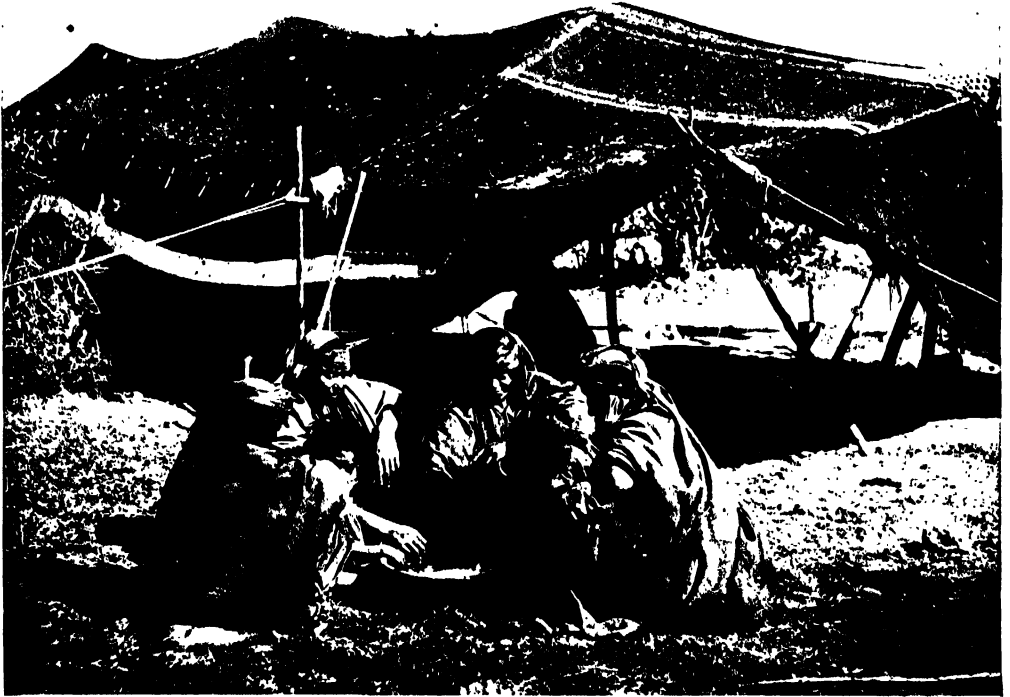
slinking by night among the enemy's tents, he has no call to be ashamed of himself, and will be treated by his captors without keen reprobation, held to ransom or arrangement, so long as blood has not been spilt. It is all fair play. Where primitive morals maintain their purity, the bound prisoner is forced formally to renounce the privilege of hospitality, else he has only to touch one of his keepers, to win from an ignorant child a morsel of food or a drink of water, even symbolically to spit in the face of man or child, and he at once establishes his claim to protection as a guest. It will be remembered how

Bedouin Women at a Meal

Photo Bonfils

deftly and dramatically, in the *Talisman*, Saladin shears off the head of the false knight who is about to drink under his roof.

For not less notoriously it is a point of the Bedouin's religion to be true to his guest as relentless to his foe. Here, as hardly elsewhere in the world, "stranger is a holy name". When even an enemy, by certain observances of custom, can trick the tent-owner into temporary service, an unknown visitor has only to present himself to be sure of courteous welcome, and, with any favourable introduction, may find the tribe dispute the honour of entertaining him. This famous hospitality is apt to wear a little thin where a tribe sees much of strangers; and in any case it may not prove inconsistent with the host taking the first chance to plunder his guest, after giving him a fair start into independence; but so long as the stranger, however much at his own invitation, remains in a Bedouin home, its master looks on himself as responsible for his life and property. In general, the Bedouins, unless in the way of their bad business, appear more disposed to be friendly than not. They soon lay aside ill-will, except that of

the ancestral vendetta, and are found ready to smile upon the traveller whom an hour before they may have attacked under some unfortunate mistake. Beneath the dignity of their manners there is often disclosed a turn for good-natured sociability, which in the case of youngsters will take lively forms of sport and jest, while any excitement may draw them into a storm of clamour and violent gestures subsiding as quickly as it arose.

The Bedouin's property consists chiefly in horses and camels, in flocks of sheep or goats; cattle are more rarely kept among the hills or in the neighbourhood of towns. His movable home is a tent of black goats' hair, divided by a curtain that secures privacy for his womankind, furnished with pack-saddles, corn-sacks, and the water-skins, mortars, hand-mills, coffee-pots, dairy vessels, &c., that are the domestic utensils; sometimes also with handsome carpets. His dress is a cotton shirt, over which he throws a loose mantle called an abba, often of striped pattern, or a thick mantle of sheep-skin worn even in scorching heat; he goes sandalled and barelegged; and over his plaited tresses draws a gay hood, kerchief, turban, or some other thick head-gear. The women affect loose dark cotton gowns; their face-covering varies from a mere strip of veil to a thick mask, more or less completely hiding their fancy for puncturing and staining part of the face and for silver nose and ear-rings. In some parts of Arabia the wearing of tight trousers is a female privilege, and the men have a kind of kilt. A good deal of finery may be displayed upon occasion by both sexes; but on the war-path or in travelling a Bedouin is apt to strike strangers as clothed chiefly in dirty brown rags. A practised eye, indeed, can distinguish one tribe from another by some peculiarity of costume or equipment. A rich man is little better off than a poor one, except in the ability to exercise plentiful hospitality, a great point of ostentation with them, or in the possession of superior steeds and weapons. Their arms are a lance or a mace, a scimitar, and a crooked dagger; and matchlocks and other clumsy firearms have nearly ousted their ancient slings and bows and the elaborate suits of armour that once made part of the complete Arab warrior's array.

A man has commonly no more than one wife, at a time that is, for he enjoys great freedom of divorce, and may from first to last have chosen and rejected many partners, whom he must haggle for with the father, and accept somewhat blindfold, as in the case of Leah and Rachel; and the wife may not have known her husband by name till the wedding-day. The woman is by no means the better half in an Arab establishment, but rather such a handmaid as we see in the Scriptures. She does not presume to eat but of her lord's leavings; all the drudgery of the tent is thrown on her, while he lolls in the shade, smoking his pipe, playing at a kind of draughts, or generally enjoying his *dolce far niente* till the hour comes for activity in fight or pillage. Black slaves, common in towns, are found also in the tents, who, treated considerately and often freed, must have to some extent alloyed the pure stock. The African slave-trade, though denounced by Turkey and watched by British cruisers, is not yet extinct about the Red Sea.

Coffee and tobacco are the Arabs' chief luxuries; their fare varies with circumstances. Dates make no small part of it, there being at least as many sorts of dates in Arabia as of apples in England, used in different ways, among which perhaps the commonest is as a crushed mass of pulp; then the stones are pounded as fodder for animals. Butter, cheese, and sour milk are always at

hand; for a luxury they have the flesh of lambs, kids, or even camels, besides the chance of a gazelle or other desert game; and many tribes are in a position to raise or to obtain grain, which they bake into unleavened scones, or use as *burghul*, the crushed and dried wheat cooked with butter and oil, which is a common dish all over Syria. Exchange with their agricultural neighbours of cheese and butter, of charcoal, gum mastic, aromatic herbs and other products of the desert, for wheat, barley, coffee, tobacco, &c., is almost their only commerce. Their arts are commonly confined to rude weaving, tanning, and dyeing, to horse-shoeing and saddlery, and to the making of weapons where these cannot be bought or stolen. For all their pride, the sons of the tent are often found with a keen eye for gain, where it is to be got either by bargaining or by the strong hand. Different coins circulate among them in different regions; most often the Turkish silver *mejidies* (about 4*s.*) and piastres, but in the mountainous south, Indian rupees or Maria Theresa dollars, the latter specially coined for the conservative markets of the Arabian Sea.

Honour rather than honesty is the true Arab's strong point. With some demerits, that strike an unrecommended stranger, he is much of a gentleman, but religious principle seems not very congenial to him. As a rule, he is by no means bigoted in his Mohammedanism, neglectful of prayers, not well provided with priests, sometimes keeping the fasts of his faith, but readier at the feasts, for which he provides excuse by vowing to sacrifice a sheep or a camel on any perilous emergency. There are copies of the Koran for those who can read them, a considerable proportion in the less wild tribes; but the young men, at least, listen more eagerly to legendary tales of love and war chanted by minstrels to the twanging of a rude guitar. The Koran itself indeed abounds in passages appealing to the carnal man, like such episodes as that of David and Goliath in our own Scriptures. The truth appears to be that, away from mosques and mollahs, the Bedouin tends always to relapse into the heathendom from which he was raised by the call of his Prophet. Free-born pride with him is a stronger motive than piety; and he despises Christians no more than he does the orthodox Osmanli, who now excites his bitterer hatred as a galling oppressor.

Among this somewhat undevout race, when still they "worshipped stocks and stones", burst forth that most volcanic eruption of faith to spread so rapidly over a great part of the world, hardening into such rigid lines. The rise, indeed, of Islam makes one of the strangest episodes in human history. That an ignorant camel-driver should have been able to sublimate the vague legends of kindred peoples into a new religion, to cast down the idols of his native land, to wear out the obstinate prejudices of his kinsmen and enemies, to coin an elaborate revelation, and above all to deceive himself into what was apparently an honest enthusiasm if alloyed by fanatic arts, shows Mohammed to have been no ordinary man. Students of history who do not share Carlyle's boisterous reverence for success may note crises at which the fate of this new religion seemed to hang by a hair, and names of other Arabian prophets, "boasting themselves to be somewhat", who, under the same favouring conditions, might have made converts by the million. Perhaps the truth is that a natural ebullition of human nature had here the chance of crystallizing itself round the masterfully attractive character of a teacher whose hot gospel was not too high for it, and who soon could lead his followers not only to belief but to domination and

plunder. This unlettered poet had conceived a religion of pride, not of sorrow, one which has appealed to lustful warriors rather than to the weary and heavy laden, and which has never had the same ennobling influence on that sympathetic sex, "first at the cross and last at the grave" of Christ.

It was in A.D. 622 that Mohammed fled to Medina from the persecution of the sacred Koreish tribe to which he belonged by birth; this is the *Hegira*, from which dates the Moslem Calendar. As yet so little of a prophet in his own country, he had only ten years more to live; but in so short space he gathered an army of converts; he returned to Mecca in triumph and cast out the idols from its ancient shrine, the Kaaba; he consolidated his own creed, and made himself the centre of an Arabian nationality which soon began to play its fierce part in history. His immediate successors, "the Caliphs", were able to send out fanatical swarms that in twenty years more swept over Syria, Persia, and Egypt, overthrowing effete societies and planting the Crescent in place of time-honoured symbols. In the next generation the worldly side of this conquering faith came to overlay its spiritual elements. From the first, disputes as to the caliphate had opened the great schism between the followers of Ali, the Prophet's son-in-law, and those of his elected successors. Murder, tyranny, and civil war mingled coarser passions with those of early enthusiasm. The rival leaders, enervated by luxurious spoil, fixed their seats outside the bounds of Arabia; and its choicest warriors emigrated to richer fields of domination. Before long the Bedouins fell back into their simple state of disunited clans; the glories of Arabian science, literature, and art rose to flourish in foreign lands; and the holy places of Islam alone remained as its strongest connection with the land of its birth.

The creed and the nation thus self-exiled went on spreading over the southern regions of Asia and the northern part of Africa, reached even into outlying quarters of Europe, where for a time the supremacy of the Cross was threatened. Beaten back from the Pyrenees and held in check on the Danube, Mohammedanism found wide ground for extension in other directions. To innumerable tribes of dark-minded heathen it proved a step in civilization; and the mass of easily absorbed converts added to its own momentum. But there is a certain want of spiritual energy and of expansive power which in the end makes this religion a curse rather than a blessing. It acts as a sedative to the conscience and a stimulant to the passions. Its frame of formal observances stifles the growth of the human mind that at first may be fostered by its warmth. Its sensual hopes and fears too easily cheat the heart out of wholesome self-knowledge. Its sluggish fatalism is readily adapted as an instrument for tyrants. So Moslem domination shows itself almost everywhere a rusty fetter upon the souls of its votaries.

At various times and places a fresh upheaval of the same lurid moral force has given forth more fire than sweetness and light; and at the present moment there is a smouldering revival of Islam that may yet blaze up over a good part of the world. The most remarkable and effective of these revivals rose in Arabia itself, about the middle of our eighteenth century, when the learned and pious Abd-el-Wahab began to preach what may be called a Puritan version of the faith. This reformer denounced modern indifferentism, went back, like Luther, to the original documents of belief, insisted upon its native austerity, denounced the superstition that had encrusted it, frowned at the pretentious architecture

of dome and minaret, and, going beyond the temperance of Mohammed, forbade the use of tobacco as well as of wine. As in the original movement, conviction was urged by force of arms, and the political again overlaid the religious side of fanaticism. The Wahabis, as they were called, became a formidable power, Bedouin tribes once more rallying to their standard, till a great part of Arabia was for a time united in a state that at first had righteousness and orthodoxy for its motto, and that threatened to renew the caliphs' victorious career. The capture of Mecca, their holy city, roused the Turks to resistance. In the early part of last century the ambitious Egyptian pashas drove back the Wahabis from the coast of Arabia, and their authority has since been confined to the central highlands. The power founded by them is said to be dwindling, it has certainly split up into two or three rival states; but of late there have appeared signs that Wahabism may take a fresh political extension, yet may prove to have lost the exalted temper that was its title to loyalty. A more recent revival of Moslem theocracy and morals, at the call of a teacher named Senussi, had its rise in the African deserts; but this appears to have spread into Arabia as all over the world of Islam.

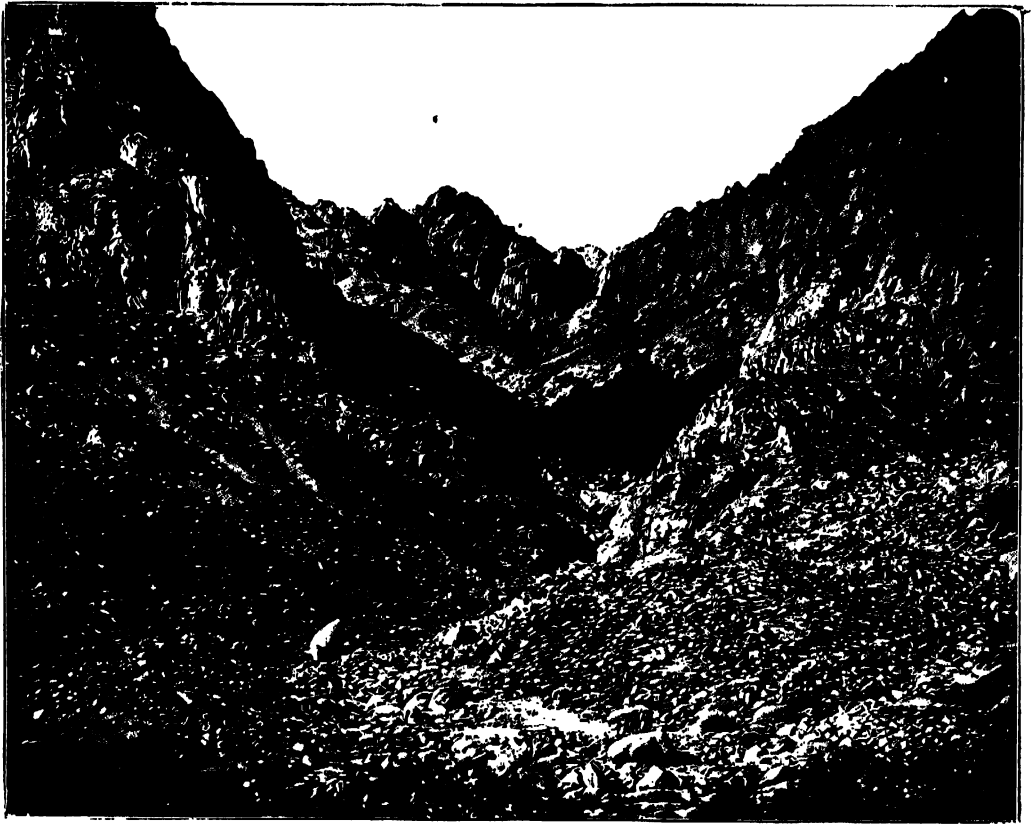
THE COUNTRY

The Arabian peninsula is 1200 miles long by about half that breadth, making an area of a million square miles; but to this may be added the Syrian desert between the Lebanon and the Euphrates, into which extend the same features and inhabitants. The general character of the country is that of a bare plateau from 2000 to 5000 feet high, with a varied surface expressed in the old names *Arabia Petræa*, *Arabia Deserta*, and *Arabia Felix*. On the whole it is justly proverbial as a barren thirsty land, where rain will often be unknown for years, and over the greatest part of it there are no perennial rivers, only the stream-beds called *wadys*, flushed for a time by occasional storms. Hence so much of the land is an arid waste, shingly or gravelly in the north, as a rule, sandy in the south, made fertile only by wells or reservoirs which supply life-blood to the oases. These, indeed, might often be much extended if the Bedouins were more given to cultivation. The richest regions here, contrary to the experience of our temperate climate, are the highlands, that catch the ocean cloud-currents, and can profit, in most years, by periodical rains, coming in summer on the west coast, and on the other side in winter.

A belt of mountains runs all down the shore of the Red Sea, rising to some 10,000 feet, or higher in the south-west corner, Yemen, which was well-named the fortunate division of Arabia.[1] To the north-east of this comes the largest and most hopeless expanse of desert, stretching almost across the peninsula. But the central upland, known as the Nejd (highlands), is again seamed by ridges, of which the northern range, Jebel Shammar (about 6000 feet), appears to be the highest. This elevated central region, enjoying a temperate climate, is the seat of the Wahabi power; to the north of which a formidable split has been made by the Emir of Shammar, whose authority, though of recent and sanguinary origin, seems to have become the most potent force among the independent Arabs. Emir, imam, or sultan are titles

[1] Mr. W. B. Harris surmises that the mountains of Yemen may reach the height of 15,000 feet.

assumed by chiefs who have succeeded in establishing a centralized power in those more productive parts of the country. Another independent state here is Kasim, traversed by a great wady, whose stream, if perennial, would be the chief river of Arabia.

The desert itself is not always so dismal as it is painted. North of Jebel Shammar extends the redoubtable Nefud belt that strikes awe even to Bedouin hardihood. Palgrave describes this as "an immense ocean of loose reddish sand, unlimited to the eye, and heaped up in enormous ridges running parallel

An Arabian Stream-bed, or *Wady*

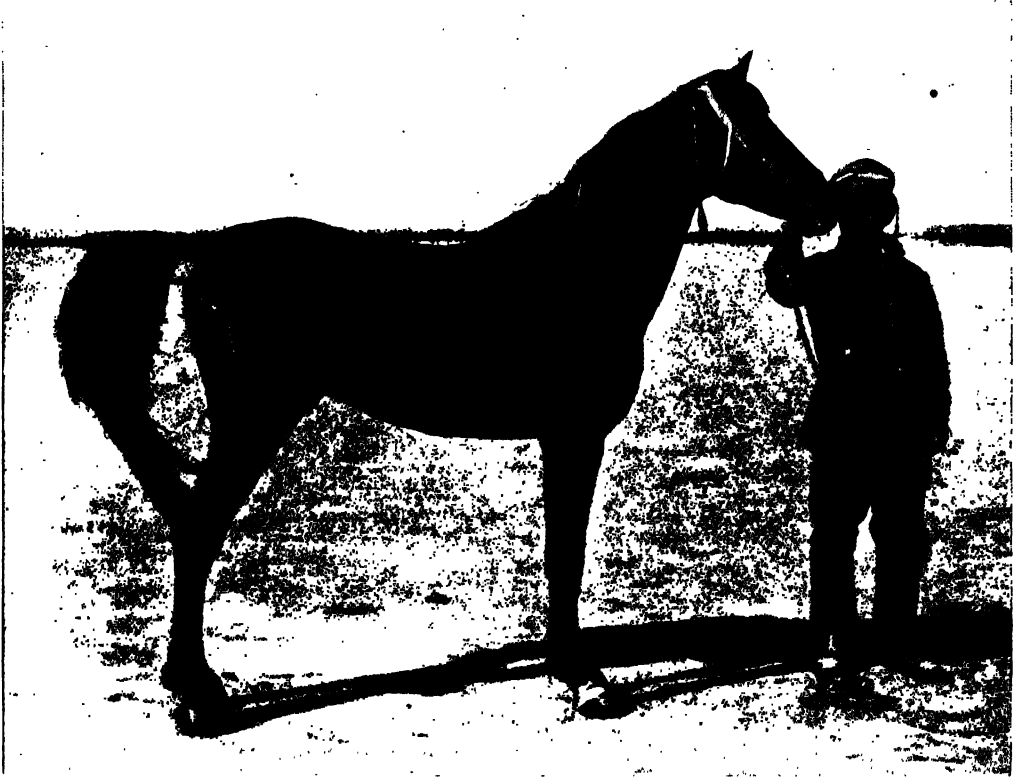
to each other from north to south, undulation after undulation, each swell two or three hundred feet in average height, with slant sides and rounded crests furrowed in every direction by the capricious gales of the desert. In the depths between, the traveller finds himself as it were imprisoned in a suffocating sand-pit, hemmed in by burning walls on every side; while at other times, while labouring up the slope, he overlooks what seems a vast sea of fire, swelling under a heavy monsoon wind, and ruffled by a cross-blast into little red-hot waves. Neither shelter nor rest for eye or limb amid torrents of light and heat poured from above on an answering glare reflected below!" This was in summer; in winter, Lady Anne Blunt found the Nefud no such nightmare scene, but she accentuates the bright hue of its sands, turned by rain or dew to crimson, with a general aspect of dirty red waves, their troughs often taking the form of deep horse-hoof hollows. At this season the soil was tufted with bushes and vine-like creepers.

many parts being skimmed over with rough camel pasture and even grasses for sheep. Other desert plains she compares to rolling Wiltshire downs, on which in June the grass withers white, to be revived by the rains of autumn. Often, indeed, the sand may be bare of all but the scrubbiest vegetation, its brown or blindingly snow-like surface showing the tracks of the gazelles, panthers, or wolves that are its chief inhabitants. Sometimes the waste takes the form of shifting sand-hills, or ridges and furrows; again it may be smooth as a table. Here the camels' feet crunch into a brittle surface of salt or nitre, there upon cakes of clay curled up by the heat like drain-pipes; elsewhere the plain is strewn with shingle, or littered by black volcanic stones, "as though a gigantic coal-scuttle had been upset". Sand-storms come oftener than thunder-showers, but the deadly effects of the simoom here appear to have been exaggerated by some travellers; while the stifling *khamsin* wind, that chokes the pores and clogs the spirits with its burden of heat and sand, is a most unpleasant experience. The chief peril of the desert comes from the scarcity of wells, between which voyagers must steer their course.

Exaggeration, indeed, appears natural in this climate, where at mid-day all outlines are apt to be confused or magnified in shimmering heat; but at morning and evening craggy heights a day's journey off stand out through the clear air as if close at hand, to be shot with gorgeous colours by ineffable sunsets; then at night the sky is glorified by the sapphire brilliancy of constellations or of the zodiacal light that here shines like a phosphorescent scar. The very desolation of nature often bears an impressive aspect in its vastness. It is small wonder if bold spirits find excitement in a desert journey, for all its trials.[1] The nights are often fresh or even cold after a sweltering day, the clear atmosphere causing rapid radiation from the scorched sand; indeed the climate may be described as one of alternate frying and freezing. Heavy mists and dews do something to make up for the want of rain. The high uplands are brisk and invigorating; and in winter they may be swept by icy blasts and scuds of snow. Pierre Loti declares that, a day's march from the frontier of Palestine, he began to miss a certain crispness and purity which the air has in the depths of the wilderness.

Though some parts of the desert appear blighted by stones or by mineral impregnation, much of it might rather be called a steppe land, which bears not only coarse pasture, but a crop of aromatic plants deliciously scenting the air after rain. From it we get such productions as myrrh, balsam, aloes, senna, and gums. One curious growth is a kind of truffle, much loved by the Bedouins, with a mealy root that has been conjectured to be the Biblical manna, rather than the exudation known under this name. Prickly acacias and other shrubs are found that yield a particularly fine charcoal. Larger trees are rare till we get into the cultivated portions, where the date and other palms make the predominant growth. Other fruits, melons, beans, barley, and tobacco are grown, also millet, sesame, cotton, indigo, and sugar-canes, some of these only on the warm and watered coast-lands. The country, once renowned for its gold, seems now poor in metals; but some valuable stones may be found, such as cornelian, agate, and onyx. The most famous product, as an article of commerce, is, of

[1] Professor Palmer, not long before his cruel murder by Bedouins, satirically suggested an arrangement for enjoying such travel at home. "You get a huge cucumber frame and walk about under it, while blast-furnaces are lighted around you. From a number of holes, hot-air and fine sand are blown into your face. After eight hours you sit down to a piece of boiled boot, washed down with warm ditch water."

course, coffee, that grows best in the mountainous south-west region, not much of it, indeed, now exported. Coffee is much used all over Arabia by those who can afford it, dozens of tiny cups, without milk or sugar, being often taken in the course of the day; and the brewing of it is the first act of hospitality. The leaves of a bitter herb called *kat* are also in high esteem as a stimulant, chewed with the fumes of the hubble-bubble; and the smoking, as well as swallowing, of hashish, Indian hemp, makes a more pernicious indulgence than tobacco. As in neighbouring Mohammedan countries, *leben*, sour

Arab Stallion

milk, is drunk with a slightly exhilarating effect in place of wine; and *ghee*, clarified butter, is another favourite beverage.

Coffee, now grown in so many parts of the world that afford the requisite union of heat and moisture, has not famed Arabia more than its horses, whose breed is also so widely spread. In its native home the Arabian horse is small, standing 14 to 15 hands, not so swift as the English race-horse that boasts his blood, but more enduring. Bay and gray are the commonest colours. The race is said to be degenerating, from want of care in breeding, and from the exportation of fine specimens. We have all heard of the Bedouin's affection for his horse; how it is almost a member of the family, contracting gentleness and trust in man from its foalhood; and what noble efforts it will put forth at the call of its master. *She*—for it is a point of dignity to mount a mare—is usually ridden in a halter without bit or stirrups; and connoisseurs report the Arab less skilful as a jockey than as a trainer. Besides coarser horses, the tribes have a particularly strong breed of asses and mules.

In the desert the horse is not so valuable as the camel, here a universal beast of burden, recommended by its strength and its power of going long distances without water, on the prickliest of pasturage, though its grazing is a slow business that much delays travel. This useful animal, indeed, as well as susceptibilities of temper, has delicacies of constitution often causing a break-down; and on desert tracks no sight is more common than the bones of camels fallen never to rise again, overcome by cold or fatigue. A burdened camel will do 20 to 30 miles a day, 3 miles an hour being good going; but the choice *delul*, used for riding at speed, may cover 100 miles at a pinch. A camel can carry up to 1000 lbs., and has often two passengers on board balancing one another in litters. The camel of Arabia is of course the one-humped dromedary, which bears much the same relation to the stronger two-humped Bactrian camel as a nag to a cart-horse. Ugly and ill-tempered as it is, there seems often to be no small affection shown between the camel and its owner, who decks out with fringes, beads, and jingling bells the ungainly neck which it bends down to give the agile rider "a leg up" into the saddle, that makes such a jolting seat for unpractised travellers.

As to animal life, besides flocks and studs, Arabia has more wild beasts than might be expected to find cover on its deserts. The bushy ground harbours hares and foxes; panthers, hyenas, and jackals are common; and even the lion is not unknown. Gazelles, antelopes, and ostriches scud shyly from oasis to oasis. Monkeys and apes swarm in the hills. Great carrion-birds swoop down upon their prey, far seen in the desert, where sand-grouse, quails, and partridges render falconry a favourite Arab sport. Some parts are infested by serpents, scorpions, and other venomous creatures. Locusts are very numerous, but must be hard put to it to pick up a living from the desert, where, on the other hand, they supply food to both man and beast, being easily caught, when heavy with the dew on their wings, and lying so thick that horses and camels can graze on them, or crowds of them may be stifled by setting fire to the coarse herbage. Lady Anne Blunt declares that they supply the place of vegetables, having a taste like green wheat. In the towns they are sold in baskets and barrels, like shrimps. Honey is another production of the desert, which enters much into the composition of Arab luxuries. A good deal of fishing employs the coast people, and there is a demand for dried fish among the adjacent Bedouin tribes.

Great cities, as may have already been gathered, are not to be looked for in Arabia. The most important communities will be found on or near the coast as we follow its contour of 4000 miles from the Euphrates to the Suez Canal.

In Mesopotamia, Baghdad and Bassora are mainly Arab towns under Turkish government. The Porte's pretensions to sovereignty extend down the strip of plain called El Hasa, on the west side of the Persian Gulf. Inland, some parts of this plain appear to be well watered, providing plenty of pasture. On the coast the people have to be content with fishing, now that their former trade of piracy has been put down by British cruisers acting as the police of this sea. Near the head of the Gulf, Koweit is known as a port from which Arabian horses are shipped to India and elsewhere; and this town should acquire new importance by the pushing on to it of the Baghdad railway. It has already become worth quarrelling about, its sheikh showing a disposition to shake off the yoke of Turkey, and to put himself under the protection of Britain, while other naval powers keep an eye on what may prove a bone of contention among them, and

what threatens to become a focus of rebellion against the Porte's vague authority. The largest inland town is El Hof-huf, rather a group of towns and villages, which, according to some accounts, make the largest mass of population in Arabia. The people of El Hasa have an exceptional turn for art, notably shown in their inlaying of silver upon wood.

A deep bay about half-way down the Persian Gulf contains the island of Bahrein and its archipelago, the head-quarters of pearl-fishing in these hot waters. The islands are now independent under British protection; at one time they were a prize of Portuguese adventure; and the late Mr. Theodore Bent's examination of their sepulchral mounds goes to prove that here was long ago a seat of Phœnician commerce. With the opposite promontory, also known as El Bah-

Landing Place and Sultan s Palace, Muscat

rein, begins the independent state of Oman, which occupies the south end of Arabia, and for a time, by its maritime enterprise, held the dependency of Zanzibar and other territory on the African mainland, as well as on the opposite coast of Persia. Its ruler is the Sultan, or Imam, of Muscat, a good harbour on the Gulf of Oman, which half a century ago was called the largest place in Arabia; but its cosmopolitan population has much dwindled of late, and the present sultan exercises little authority beyond his half-ruined city, once a Portuguese possession. Muscatel grapes are said to take their name from Muscat, whose volcanic rocks now show so brown and bare beneath such a sun that this bears the name of being the hottest port in the world.

The Oman territory nominally extends for some distance as a narrow strip round the southern coast. The greenest spot on the Arabian Sea's arid shore appears to be the Gara Hills, behind a central bay, among which is still collected the frankincense gum, once so celebrated a product of this country. Along a line of over a thousand miles, the best port, and that a bad one, is Makalla, whose chief inhabitants are Parsees, and it has a close connection with India, where its

Arab prince at present lives in the service of the Nizam. The mountainous region behind is the Hadramaut, a name strictly belonging to its great central valley, which stretches for a hundred miles or so parallel to the coast, then opens southward to drain the waters of many wadys into the sea by the Mesileh River. This little-visited region, to which rain once in two or three years is a godsend, made part of the old Arabia Felix, proverbial for riches in the ancient world; it is now thinly peopled by pastoral hill tribes of far from Arcadian manners, among whom Mr. and Mrs. Bent were astonished to find petty chiefs housed in imposing castles of architecture suggesting a once much higher civilization. Shibam is the seat of the most powerful and enlightened of these sultans. The land rises in mountain terraces, from which some considerable streams come down to the sea, watering spots of luxuriant vegetation.

Behind, to the north, extends the Dahna, or great sandy desert, still almost a blank in our maps. Beyond this is the Nejd, or central highland district, breeding-place of the finest Arabs, four-legged and two-legged. The chief places here appear to be Riad, main seat of the Wahabite power, and, on the north side, Hail, capital of the usurping Shammar emir, the territory of Kasim, with its capital, Boreida, lying between them. There are other considerable towns hidden in the Nejd, such as Jof, whose oasis is said to contain 40,000 people; but, cut off by deserts on either side, these independent states have little intercourse with the rest of Arabia, and are known to us only from hasty observations of a few bold visitors.

Near the south-west corner of this coast-line comes the British territory of Aden, which, with the small island of Perim, guarding the straits of Bab el Mandeb, and the larger African island, Socotra, far out in the Arabian Sea, make outposts of our Indian Empire. The town and harbour of Aden, that Gibraltar of the East, is the point of Arabia best known to Englishmen, since all steamers make some stay here, boarded by naked mop-headed Somali boys peddling ostrich feathers and other Eastern curiosities, and showing off their extraordinary skill in diving after the smallest coin. This important coaling-station, with 70 square miles of adjacent territory, has a motley population of some 40,000. The land-locked bay is shut in by a mass of black volcanic rock, strongly fortified, below which are Steamer Point and the native harbour, while the town itself stands above, in the throat of an extinct crater, having as its great sight the enormous ancient tanks on which it partly depends for water. Like Gibraltar, this ring of "torn and ragged spurs" is joined by a sandy isthmus to the mainland mass of contorted peaks; then round the bay, a few miles off, projects a similar promontory called "Little Aden", acquired by us since our first conquest at the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign. Aden is a very old harbour, which has seen many chances of war and trade. It is believed to be the Eden mentioned in Ezekiel; but our soldiers garrisoned there are more apt to compare it to a Scriptural locality of very different name, from which the forcible language of the barrack-room declares it to be separated by only a sheet of brown paper. Sir Edwin Arnold stigmatizes Aden as "the driest, most sterile, most savagely-forbidding spot on which man ever settled"; while some whose lot has been cast here report it as having a fairly healthy climate for those who will take precautions, and not such a bad station once one has got over the first appalling impression of barrenness. Cigarettes seem to be its one production.

Behind Aden, this south-western corner is Yemen, "Araby the Blest"

richest and most populous province of the peninsula, a country of great upland plains, broken by black ledges of rock and high sugar-loaf peaks torn into fantastic pinnacles, above glens filled with flowers and blossoms, where the precipices are wreathed in creepers, and the villages on the heights look over stretches of field and orchard that seem paradise to eyes parched in the desert. Refreshed by both spring and autumn rains, this lofty region has gushing streams and wells, and the water is stored up in tanks of solid construction, showing the

Photo. Jos. M. Coutinho, Aden
Fresh-Water Tanks, Aden. In the distance may be seen the town itself

antiquity of its flourishing culture.[1] This is the native home of the coffee-plant, whose glossy green leaves and white flowers may be seen displayed on the terraced slopes, which for further produce have indigo and other dyes, grain,

[1] Mr. Walter B. Harris, one of the few modern travellers through Yemen, gives this sample of its charming scenery: "Below me lay the great valley up the straight course of which we had been travelling for the last two nights. Over its green fields floated a transparent hazy mist, through which I would watch the river sparkling and flashing like a silver serpent, as it passed on its way to the desert and the sea. Along its bank the dark-foliaged trees stood out clear and defined. On either side of this silver streak lay terraced fields, rising step by step from the water's edge to where the mountain-slopes became too steep for cultivation. Here they were covered with thick jungle undergrowth, while above rose precipice upon precipice, crowned, thousands of feet in the pink morning sky, by broken crags and pinnacles of rock, touched with snow. At my very feet, for I was on the house-top, the villagers, rejoicing in the glorious morning, were passing out to their labours, and the flocks and herds bleated as they sought their pasturage. Women carrying beakers wended their way to the spring; while the men, spears in hand, their long glossy locks tumbling in unrestrained glory over the shoulders, added a fierce element to a scene of the most perfect peace and beauty. It was worth all the desert travel and all the dangers of our night-marches to see what I saw then. This was Arabia Felix! As I gazed the mists rose, every detail in the valley became distinct: little villages far below, crowning the rocky mounds on which the Arabs of the Yemen so love to build, stood out from the green fields all gray and severe, each a fortress in itself, with its battlements and towers. Around the pink-and-gold crags hovered little fleecy clouds, attracted by the small patches of snow—now hiding, now disclosing the grandeur of the mountain pinnacles."

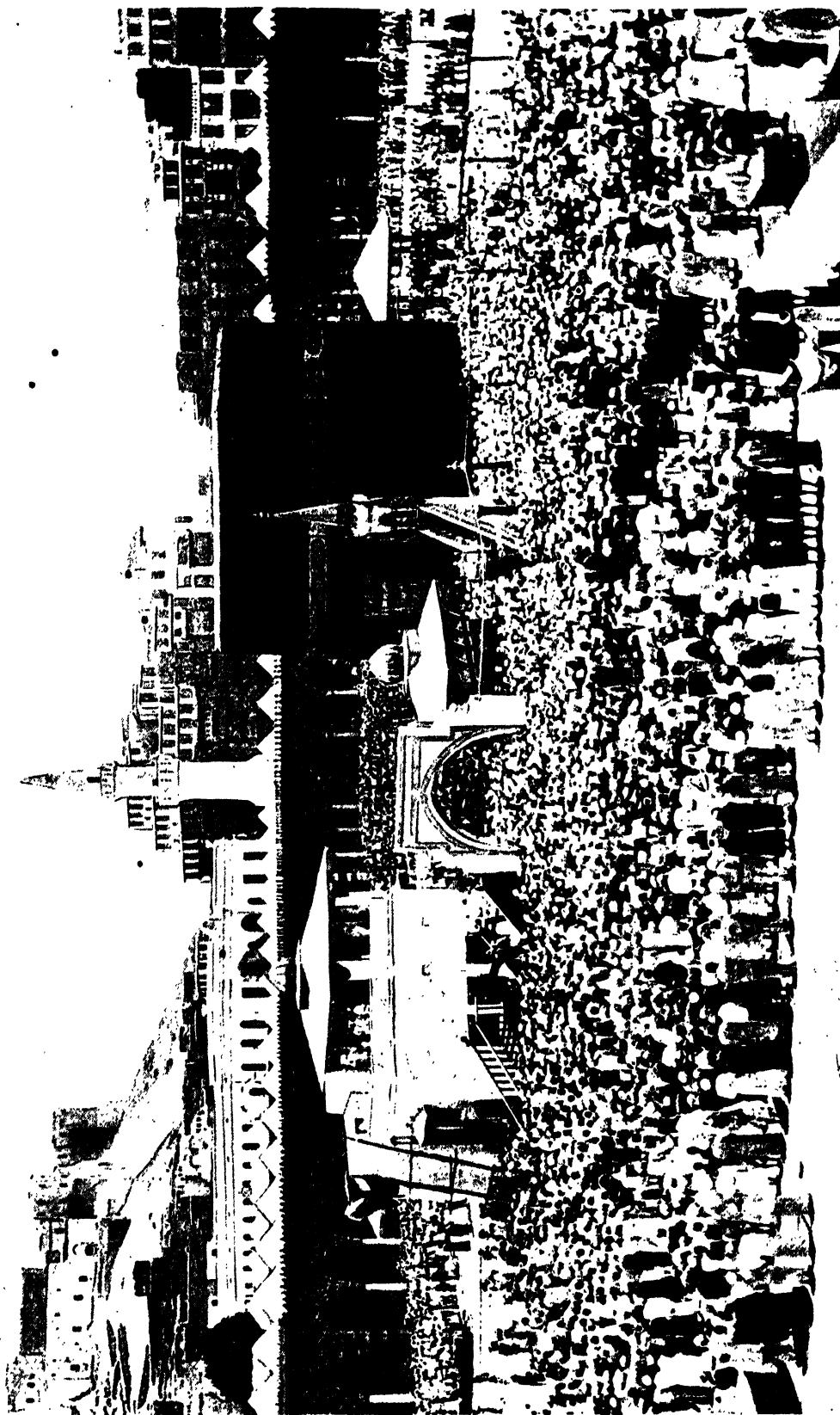
cotton, fruit, and vegetables. The capital, Sanaa, whose old forts and dilapidated palaces stand over 7000 feet above the sea, has a population of 40,000 to 50,000, a large proportion of them Jews, numerous in Yemen, where they are despised but tolerated. Before Mohammed, Christianity had taken root here, but was extirpated by a persecution so cruel as to be reprobated in the Koran. Sanaa, under imams claiming descent from the Prophet, has had a troubled history down to its reconquest by the Turks in 1892; and now again it is in a state of rebellion. As old and once more famous, seven days' journey to the north-east, is Saba, believed to be the Sheba of Solomon's admiring visitor. At this centre of old Arabian religion the ruins of an enormous water-dam are legacy from a civilization dating many centuries before our era.

The nearest Red Sea port to Sanaa is Hodeidah, with some 30,000 people, which has supplanted Mocca as chief place of shipment for the coffee of Yemen. These towns are in the Tehama, an arid and unhealthy plain of varying breadth, which borders the Yemen highlands on the Red Sea, with the Farsan Islands and smaller groups lying off it. All this shore is Turkish territory, and the province called El Hejaz, extending along the northern half of the Red Sea, makes an important possession as containing the holy cities of Mecca and Medina, the mastership of which gives the Sultan of Stamboul his undeserved position as successor of the caliphs and head of Islam. His authority here, however, vaguely limited on the inland side, is little more than a galling military occupation, and the Turkish pasha seems an inferior personage to the Sherif of Mecca, hereditary guardian of the shrines that draw so many pilgrims hither from all parts of the Mohammedan world, chiefly for one great annual assemblage which keeps shifting through the seasons, since the Moslem calendar goes by lunar months.

The port of Mecca is Jeddah, about half-way up the Red Sea, its harbour obstructed by coralline reefs, from which the town is solidly built "like an ancient model carved in ivory". It has a sacred place of its own in the vicinity, where a low enclosure contains a building known as "Eve's Tomb". Its note and thriving are due to the pilgrims who come and go here by tens of thousands, the dregs from this annual invasion making a strange blend of population, among which are not a few British subjects from India. Since the days of steam, the number of pilgrims who come by sea has much increased, the firm of Cook having started an agency at Jeddah for the forwarding of true believers. Else the great duty of a Moslem is commonly accomplished by joining himself on to one of three great caravan processions formed at Damascus, Cairo, and Baghdad, the last crossing the desert through the help of tanks established by Zobeide, the wife of Haroun Alraschid. The perils of this long journey are lessened by company, and by a system of paying blackmail to the great Bedouin sheikhs; but without due protection, the pilgrim may expect to be robbed, if not murdered, at the hands of his fellow-believers; and he is sure to be preyed on by officials, touts, contractors, and the host of beggars that swarm like jackals about the caravan. Even rich men sometimes make the journey on foot, for the sake of pious humility; and many are the poor wayfarers who perish, their shallow graves marking these high-roads of Arabia. The sea passage is, perhaps, more dangerous, so closely are herds of ill-equipped devotees packed on board like cattle, often penniless, crippled by age or infirmity, or worn out by fatigue, bringing among them the germs of diseases bred among that huge

congregation. Mohammed little thought for how many of his disciples he was hastening the way to their paradise when he enjoined on them this trying journey, through which the believer lays up for himself not only merit in the next world, but lifelong consideration on earth as a *Hadji*, who has duly performed the *Hadj*. As already mentioned, a railway is making from Damascus to Mecca, for which funds have been sought in all Moslem lands; and in 1908 this line was completed as far as Medina (820 miles).

Mecca was a sacred Arab shrine long before Mohammed made it centre for a new devotion, towards which reverent eyes are turned in prayer from China to Guinea. He himself had religiously circled the Kaaba, as is the first duty of every pilgrim. This solid oblong structure, about 40 feet high, believed to have been built by Abraham, is veiled under a rich black cloth annually renewed, the old one being cut up to be sold in shreds at fancy prices. Once a year it is cleaned out; but those admitted to the dim interior find nothing remarkable. It makes a huge altar, "the Ear of God", round which the devotees, lightly clad in two cotton garments like bath towels, barefoot, and with shaven heads, as sign of penitence, trot or stalk seven times on the marble pavement worn slippery by millions of feet, uttering pious ejaculations and pressing forward to kiss a blackened stone at the corner, which may indeed have fallen from heaven as a meteorite. Around this are several small pavilions, one of which covers the well, Zem-Zem, taken for that revealed to Hagar in the wilderness. The water has a slight medicinal taste and effect, like Epsom salts; it is also suspected of being tainted by sewage; but the pilgrims lose no chance of drinking and being douched by it, carrying away precious bottles full, and a sheet soaked in the water to serve them as shroud. The Kaaba makes the centre of a large quadrangle enclosed by colonnades and arcades, at night lit up by innumerable lamps, and at all hours of night and day, in the pilgrimage season, frequented by reverent groups or crowds whose enthusiasm sometimes ferments into scenes like those of a revival meeting. Each sect or school of believers has its special rendezvous in the enclosure, the Shiahs being looked on askance by the orthodox majority, and the Wahabis, it is said, showing a Puritan contempt of more ritualist worshippers. No one durst enter these precincts with his shoes on, or spit within them, or prostrate himself without turning his feet from the Kaaba. Among the thousands of people here engaged in their religious exercises, rush hurricanes of sacred pigeons, swooping down on the grain with which it is a pious duty to feed them; and this temple is also haunted by swallows, whose mud nests are allowed to defile its domes, minarets, and archways. Moslem bigotry has a soft side for birds.

It would take a long chapter to describe all the minute religious observances through which the pilgrims work themselves up to a heat of devotion, and the absurd legends by which their credulity is full fed at the many "holy places" about Mecca. The concluding ceremonies of the pilgrimage come at Mount Arafat, some hours' march outside the city, whither the whole host marches in straggling procession to cover the hill for a densely-packed mile, till the remission of their sins is proclaimed in a general uproar, with the waving of white upper garments by the frenzied multitude. After nightfall begins a noisy letting off of cannons, guns, and fireworks, in which some cannot fail to be hurt; and next day brings a great sacrificing of rams, goats, and other victims that go to make a general feast, the pilgrim hitherto being bound not to kill so

Pilgrims worshipping at the Kaaba, Mecca. (From an instantaneous photograph.)

much as a flea. There is also to be gone through with due zeal a function of "stoning the devil" in the Valley of Muna; then, after a last prayerful visit to the Kaaba, the new-titled Hadjis can set out for the distant homes where they will have something to talk about and hold up their heads over all the rest of their lives, if they are lucky enough to come back safe and sound. The insanitary conditions of the town, the hardships undergone by its throng of visitors in their senseless austerities, and the refuse of thousands of slaughtered animals, left to be cleared away by the next violent storm, render the holy city a focus for spreading cholera, plague, and small-pox through Moslem nations.[1]

Mecca lies among barren hills and valleys, over 40 miles inland, built on slopes so as to suggest Bath. Its 40,000 or 50,000 residents live mainly on the pilgrims who may drop in throughout the year, and during the short pilgrim season turn the city into a "Holy Fair", at least doubling the population; nearly 200,000 are said to have assembled in one year, but the numbers vary, and appear to be decreasing. Then the Meccans, who bear a bad name for greed, reap their harvest by acting as masters of religious ceremonies to these visitors, and by letting crowded lodgings, the highest prices being charged for rooms with windows looking into the Kaaba enclosure; they find, also, a sale for rosaries and other instruments of Moslem devotion. The richer citizens have retreats at Taif, a loftily situated, garden-set town to the east, from which a line of mountains runs into the central highlands of Nejd, where so much still awaits enterprising travellers like Palgrave and Mr. and Lady Anne Blunt.

Medina, several days' march north of Mecca, is a smaller town visited also for its sanctity as the refuge of Mohammed, whose tomb and coffin here are almost worshipped; but this shrine is not held so sacred as the Kaaba, and pilgrims may with a good conscience shirk the extra journey as a work of supererogation, made particularly dangerous by the fierce Bedouins who infest the hill passes. The chief caravans, indeed, take Medina on the way from Damascus and Cairo. Yembo is the nearest port on the Hedjaz coast, along which lie other small havens better known to Arab *dhows* than to European steamers.

The Red Sea, 1450 miles long, with a mean breadth of 180 miles, gets its name probably from the bare, sun-flushed mountains that seem, though leagues away, almost to border the deep blue water, or from the coral reefs and islets that make its navigation a matter of care to the great liners for whom it is a highway; or perhaps from its fringes of red sand strewn with a wealth of beautiful shells and coralline fragments. In summer the air of this land-locked sheet is notoriously oppressive, when European passengers are fain to sleep on deck in the lightest of covering; and sometimes a steamer has to be put about, running back against the wind for the sake of ventilating her heated decks. The currents of air are regular, from the south in winter, from the north in summer, so that one knows what to expect; and lucky is the well-engined Argo that gets a head wind in this stifling sea.

[1] As is well known, the acute fanaticism prevailing at Mecca, and the religious excitement prevalent among the pilgrims, make it death for an unbeliever caught spying upon these mysteries. The few Europeans who have witnessed them, Burckhardt, Burton, and others, did so in disguise of believers, at the risk of their lives in case of discovery. When Gibbon declared that all our accounts of Mecca were at second-hand, he did not show Macaulay's acquaintance with trivial literature. In 1704 came out the story of Joseph Pitts, a sailor boy from Topsham, who, taken by Algerine corsairs, was in his teens beaten into Moslem orthodoxy, and duly performed the pilgrimage to Mecca, his account of which harmonizes with those of later travellers, and seems to be authentic.

The top forks into two branches, the Gulf of Suez narrowing straight on, and the smaller Gulf of Akaba penetrating northwards for some hundred miles up to the little town of the same name at its head. The latter channel is now almost deserted by shipping; but in Solomon's time it was the great road of ocean commerce into Palestine. At one time it appears to have pierced deeper into the desert, where only a ridge separates this hollow from the cleft opening northwards to the Dead Sea. Here was the land of Edom, in which Mount Hor looks down upon the wonderfully tinted rocks of the "Valley of Moses", and the not less wonderful ruins of Petra, old capital of Arabia Petræa, its tombs and temples carved out of precipitous sandstone cliffs in an arid gorge now uninhabitable, and long seldom visited through the fear of its Bedouin guardians.[1]

The peninsula between the two arms of the Dead Sea is notable as the Desert of the Exodus, more desolate than ever since its scanty timber has been destroyed through the short-sighted policy of imposing a tribute in charcoal upon the few thousand poor Bedouins that make its inhabitants. The central part is the limestone plateau of the Tih, scarped by abrupt precipices, seamed by crooked fissures, and islanded with mountains of sandstone or igneous rock, whose crumbling fills the dry valleys with rivers of brightly-tinted sand, exceptional patches in this rugged wilderness. On the north it slopes down to the sandy shore of the Mediterranean. The southern tongue is occupied by a labyrinth of granitic mountains and gorges, among which, as all over this peninsula, Arabia shows most impressively her frequent aspect as a fleshless skeleton.[2]

The name Sinai is unknown to its modern inhabitants; and in our time there has been much controversy as to the identification of the Biblical Mount Sinai. The traditional site, venerated by Moslem as well as Christian, is Jebel Musa, the Mount of Moses, in the southern corner, below which Justinian built a convent fortress, still garrisoned by Greek monks, who now and again have had a trying task in the defence of this outpost of the Cross, and are fain to gain the good-will of their Bedouin neighbours through alms of food let down from the massive walls by ropes and taken as tribute. In the monastery, with relics of its patron St. Catherine, are treasured priceless Byzantine manuscripts; and a crypt is entered reverently with unshod feet as the spot on which

[1] "The scenery of Petra made a deep impression on me from its extreme desolation and its savage character. The rocks of friable limestone, worn by the weather into forms of endless variety, some of which could scarcely be distinguished from the remains of ancient buildings; the solitary columns rising here and there among the shapeless heaps of masonry; the gigantic flights of steps, cut in the rock, leading to the tombs; the absence of all vegetation to relieve the solemn monotony of the bare brown soil; the mountains rising abruptly on all sides; the silence and solitude, scarcely disturbed by the wild Arab lurking among the fragments of pediments, fallen cornices, and architraves which encumber the narrow valley, render the ruins of Petra unlike those of any other ancient city in the world." Layard's *Early Adventures.*

[2] "The country of the peninsula has an extraordinary burnt-up look, as if it had only just been turned out of Dame Nature's crucible. The facts of there being little or no vegetation on the hills, and the atmospheric denudation being slight compared to the denuding power of the torrents, combined with the extraordinary medley of mountains and isolated hills that form the greater part of the country, result in an exposition of the geographical formation of the country in a manner that is rarely visible elsewhere. Dykes of trap-rock lie across the trough of the *wadys*, conspicuous in their dark homogeneous character. Whichever way we turn, the native rock is visible to the eye, with the trend and contortions of the strata plainly exposed to view; and from an eminence we may mark the recurrence of the beds as plainly as we could if the country had been modelled, and the model was the object of our study. On the sides of the *wadys*, masses of clay left in the sheltered portions, high up many feet above the bed of the valley, attract the eye by their colour, contrasting with the backing of sandstone, granite, or other crystalline rock which form the mountains of the peninsula. Lodes and veins of copper are frequently visible as one continues on one's way; and everything lies so naked before one, that it would be difficult, if countries could be made to order, to construct one better adapted for the illustration of geology."—Captain Haynes' *Man-hunting in the Desert.*

Jehovah appeared in the burning bush; as in the vicinity are shown the Rock of Moses and the scene of the Brazen Serpent. Higher up stands a shrine of Mohammed, who, according to legend, gained at this convent the knowledge of Christianity which he wove into his own creed. The frowning peaks around, when wrapped in the blackness of tempest, make a scene of impressive awe that well fits the revelation believed to have been here thundered forth. But critics who spare no tradition have shown reasons against this being taken for the Mountain of the Law, some finding it rather in higher points of the same range, while others place it to the north in the heights of the Tih, or among the not less stern features of Edom.

The central highway of Sinai is the pilgrim route from Suez, by the fort of Nackl, to Akaba. Its chief port is Tor, lying to the south of Jebel Musa on the Gulf of Suez. Here arises another much-vexed question, as to the crossing-place of the Israelites. Arab tradition places this some way down the Gulf, where in the howling of the wind are still heard the despairing cries of Pharaoh's host, turning wildly back to that land of Goshen, itself now overwhelmed by waves of sand. More critical theorists seek it rather in the shallow upper waters, once extending higher up into the desert along the line of the great canal that continues the Gulf as boundary between Africa and Asia.

Here, but for this strip of water, the two continents merge by their common deserts. In one sense the Sinaitic peninsula has already brought us into Africa, as this corner of Arabia is Egyptian territory, having been superficially subdued by the ambitious viceroys who, a century ago, asserted their independence of Constantinople. The Suez Canal appears to be modifying the climate of the isthmus, drawing along it from the Mediterranean clouds and fogs to moisten the arid banks that gleam like snow under the electric light of steamers. All over Asia we have seen how rain is the enchanter's wand by which a desert may be turned into a garden.

Geographical and Commercial Survey

FRENCH INDO-CHINA

Area and Population

Divisions.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
Tonkin	46,000	12,000,000
Annam	52,000	6,200,000
Cambodia	37,500	1,200,000
Cochin-China	22,000	3,000,000
Laos	98,500	600,000
Total	256,000	23,000,000

Kwang-chow-wan, in Southern China, is attached to Indo-China for administrative purposes.

Principal Races

I. MONGOLOID—
- Annamese, Tonkinese.
- Laos.
- Moi, Kha, or Phnom (on Siamese frontier).

II. CAUCASIC—
- Khmer or Cambodians.
- Khmer-dom or Xuy (Cambodia).
- Stieng, Charay, &c. (Annam and Cambodia).

III. OTHERS—
- Malays, Chinese, Indians, Japanese, &c.

Religions

According to the census of 1901 in Cochin-China, when the total population numbered 2,968,529, the number of Buddhists was 1,688,270, and of Roman Catholics, 73,234. There are 420,000 Roman Catholics in Annam, and 400,000 in Tonkin.

Principal Towns

Towns.	Population.
Saïgon (cap. Cochin-China), including Cholon	190,000
Hanoi (cap. Tonkin, and of whole territory)	100,000
Hué (cap. Annam)	40,000
Luang-Prabang (cap. Laos)	40,000
Pnom-penh (cap. Cambodia)	30,000
Nam-dinh (Tonkin)	30,000
Haiphong (Tonkin)	20,000
Vinh (Annam)	12,000
Mytho (Cochin-China)	6,000
Tourane (Annam)	5,000
Kampot (Cambodia)	3,000

Climate

The following table gives some particulars of temperature and rainfall for two important stations:—

Stations (with Latitude N.)	Mean Annual Temp. (° F.)	Max. Temp. (° F.)	Min. Temp. (° F.)	Annual Rainfall (Inches).
Hanoi (21° 2′) ...	75.2	98.6	44.6	70.28
Saïgon (10° 47′)	79.7	96.8	60.8	44.7

In Cochin-China and Cambodia there are two regular seasons: the dry season (N.E. monsoon), October 15–April 15, temperature from 68° F. at night to 81° F. by day; the wet season, with tornadoes (S.W. monsoon), April 15–October 15, temperature 84.2° F. day and night (April and May hottest).

In Annam, N.E. monsoon brings rains in September; dry, hot season, June to August, temperature 86°–95° F., nights cool. October–May is a winter season in Tonkin (temperature 50° F. in delta, 42.8° F. in Highlands); summers very hot.

Principal Rivers

Rivers.	Towns on Banks.
FLOWING TO GULF OF TONKIN—	
Song-ka (Red River; 750 miles)	Lao-kai, Yen-bai, Son-tai, Hanoi, Hung-yen, Nam-dinh, Haiphong
Song-bo (Black River; right)	——
Lo-kiang (White River; left)	——
Song-ma	Thanh-hoa.
Song-ka	Vinh.
FLOWING TO SOUTH CHINESE SEA—	
Song-giang...	——
Hué	Hué.
Song-luang...	Tourane.
Saïgon	Saïgon, Cholon.
Donnaï (left)	Bien-hoa.
Vaico (two; right) ...	——
Mekong (2600 miles)	Luang-Prabang, Stung-treng, Kratie, Pnom-penh, Vinh-long, Mytho.
Sebang, Sekhong } Left	——

Lakes

The only one requiring mention is the Tonle-sap of Cambodia, with an area varying from 100 to 800 square miles.

Principal Productions

Vegetable—

Rice, maize, and other cereals, pepper, tea, coffee, cinnamon, cardamoms, sugar, tobacco, opium, indigo, betel, ground-nuts, areca-nuts, cotton, rubber, teak and other timbers.

Animals and Animal Products—

Buffaloes and other cattle, horses (small), pigs, poultry, fish, silk.

Minerals—

Gold, iron, copper, zinc, tin, coal (especially at Hongai and elsewhere in Tonkin, at Tourane in Annam), limestone, precious stones.

Manufactures—

Weaving, dyeing, embroidery, soap, varnish, iron, briquettes, matches, glass, cotton-spinning, &c.

Currency

A. Money of Account

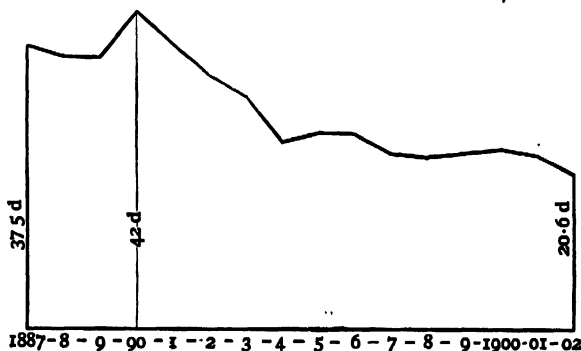
1 Dollar = 100 Cents. 1 Cent = 5 Sapèques.
The *dollar* is also called a *piastre*.

B. Coins

Coins.	Fineness.	£	s.	d.
Silver—				
Piastre	.9	0	1	7
50 Cents	.9	0	0	9.5
20 Cents	.835	0	0	3.8
10 Cents	.835	0	0	1.9
Bronze—				
1 Cent	—	0	0	0.19
1 Sapèque	—	0	0	0.038

(Sterling Value.)

The *piastre* or dollar is given above as equal to two francs, the value adopted in the Budget for 1904. The silver piastre weighs 27 grams (= 416.664 grains). The *sapèque*, like the Chinese cash, has a hole in the middle.

The following graph shows the variation in value of the piastre during the period 1887–1902. The values stated on the figure are in pence.

Variation in Value of Piastre (French Indo-China) during 1887–1902

Weights and Measures

A. Linear Measure

The chief unit of length is the *thuoc*, which has different values according to locality. It ranges from 15 to over 25 inches, but a standard value is 19.2 inches. For measuring distances the units are the *li*, equal to 486 yards; the *dam* of 2 li; and the *league* of 5 dam, equal to 2.76 miles.

B. Surface Measure

The *square mao* (1 mao = 150 thuoc = 80 yards) = 1.32231 acre. The square mao = 100 square sao = 900 square ngu.

C. Cubic Measure

1 *shita* or *tao* = 2 hao = 12½ gallons.

D. Weights

The *can* is equal to 1⅓ pound avoirdupois. There are numerous multiples and subdivisions.

Note. — The French weights and measures were recently made the legal standard by decree in Cochin-China, but not in the other divisions.

Finance

For a recent year the revenue and expenditure in the general budget were estimated to balance at 31,312,000 piastres (= about £2,600,000).

The following table shows the distribution of the revenue among the governments in a recent year:—

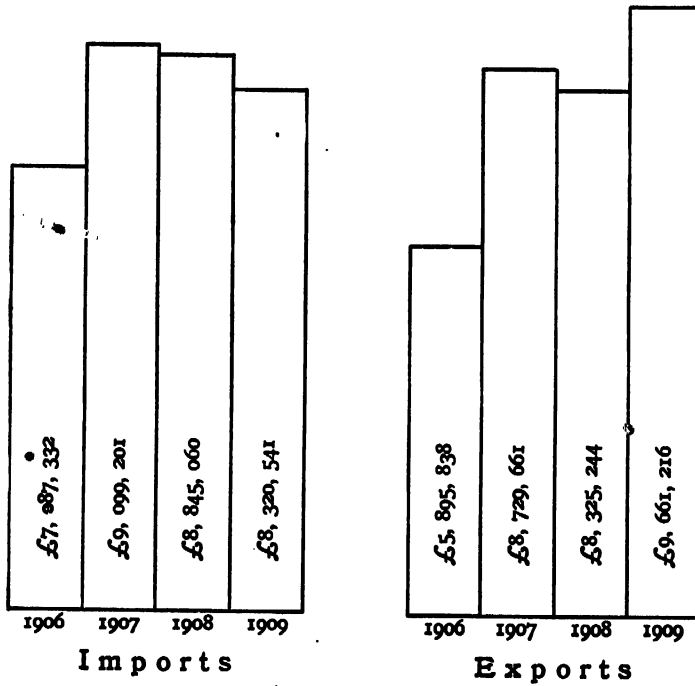
Budgets.	Revenue in Piastres.
General	31,801,930
Cambodia	2,514,860
Annam	2,565,448
Tonkin	5,388,755
Cochin-China	4,926,959
Laos	956,300
Total	48,154,252

The principal sources of the general revenue in another recent year are shown in the following table:—

Sources.	Amount (in piastres).
Indirect Taxes and Excise	15,060,000
Customs	5,940,000
Registration of Land and Stamp Duties	807,000
Posts and Telegraphs	382,000
Forests	247,000
Interest	200,000
Other Sources	362,000
Total	22,998,000

Commerce

A. The Course of Trade

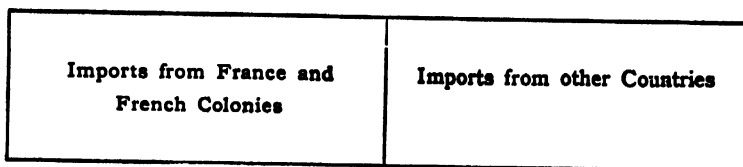
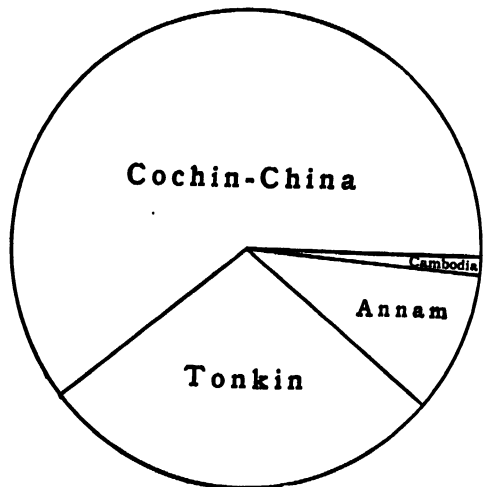
The divisions of French Indo-China were formed into a Customs Union in 1887. The following diagrams show the value of the imports and exports of goods from the whole union during 1906–1909, the transit trade being excluded:—

The accompanying circle diagram shows the distribution of the total trade of French Indo-China among the political divisions.

The most important part of French Indo-China in a commercial sense is Cochin-China, with the seaport of Saïgon, and next in order comes Tonkin, or Tongking, with the seaport of Haiphong.

B. Imports

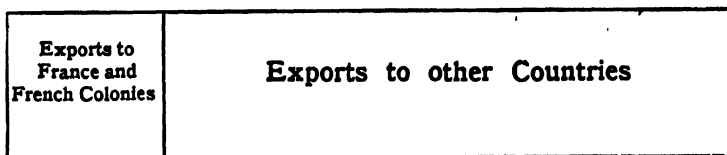
The following diagram shows the proportion of the imports into French Indo-China received from France and French colonies.

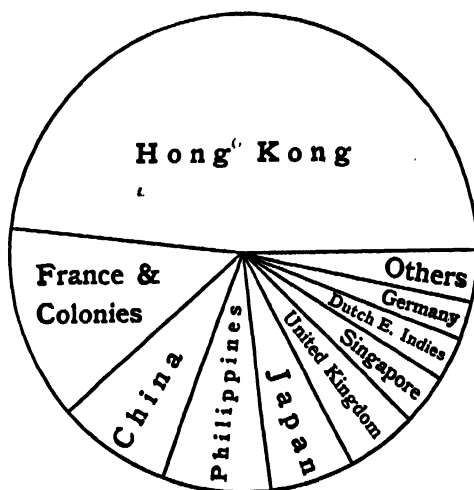
The principal commodities imported are: Cotton goods, cotton yarn, kerosene, metal goods, liquors, paper and paper goods, machinery, iron and steel, opium, silks, coal, tobacco, and tea.

Imports from France and French Colonies	Imports from other Countries

Sources of Imports into French Indo-China

C. Exports

The following diagram shows the proportion of the exports of French Indo-China sent to France and French colonies:—

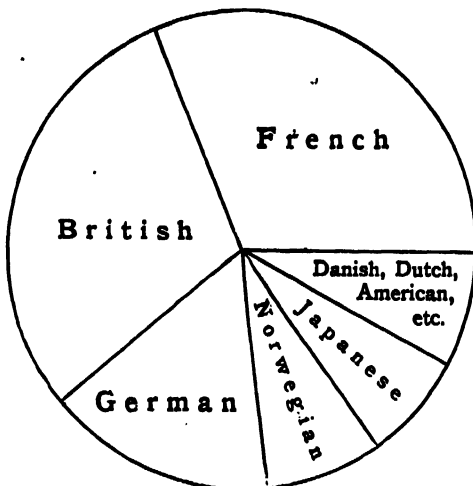
Exports to France and French Colonies	Exports to other Countries

Destinations of Exports from French Indo-China

Rice is the principal commodity exported. The following circle diagram shows the principal countries which receive rice from Indo-China and the relative amounts taken by them:—

Destinations of Rice exported from Indo-China

Other important exports are: Tin, fish, cotton yarn, pepper, coal, maize, mats, cement, cotton, metal goods, skins, cottons, silk, rubber, and hides.

Shipping

The following circle diagram shows the proportion of the tonnage entered under each of the principal flags. The total was 2,138,319 tons in a recent year.

The principal seaports are: Saïgon, Tourane, Qui-Nhon (Annam), Xuan Day (Annam), Kampot, Haiphong, Hué, Mytho.

Distribution among Chief Flags of Tonnage cleared at Ports of French Indo-China

Railways

Lines completed, under construction, or projected—

Haiphong—Hanoi—Laokai (thence into Yunnan); 250 miles.
Hanoi—Langson, &c.; 100 miles.
Hanoi—Nam-dinh—Ninh-binh—Vinh; 202 miles.
Tourane—Hué—Kwangtri; 108 miles.
Saïgon—Bao-Chanh—Phantiet—Nhatrang; 264 miles.
Saïgon—Mytho; 44 miles.
Total length, nearly 1000 miles.

SIAM

Area and Population

Area, 220,000 square miles; Population, 6,000,000.

The following states of the Malay Peninsula are tributary to Siam:—Palean, Satun, Palit, and Kedah, on the west coast; Petani, Jering, Sai, and Legeh, on the east coast; Jalor and Ramon, inland. Kelantan and Trengganu were ceded to Britain in 1908.

Principal Races

I. MONGOLOID—
- Tai Family:
  - Siamese.
  - Shans (in north).
  - Laos (in north and east).
- Khas.

II. CAUCASIC—
- Chong (in south-east), &c.

III. OTHERS—
- Chinese, Malays, Burmese, Indians, Cambodians, &c.

Religion

Buddhism is the prevailing religion. There are 10,000 Buddhist temples, with some 90,000 priests.

Principal Towns

Towns.	Population.
Bangkok (cap.)	600,000
Chieng-mai	60,000
Chantabun	7,000

Other towns are: Korat, Ubon, and Nong-kai, on the eastern plateau; Petriu, Pechim, and Kabin, on the Bang-pa-kong River; Kanburi, Ratburi, and Petchaburi, on the lower Me-kong (west of the Mei-nam); Ayuthia (the old capital), Lopburi, Angtong, Chainat, Paknampo, Pitsanulok, Pichai, Utaradit, and Raheng, on the Mei-nam; Saraburi and Lom-sak, on the Nam-sak.

Climate

According to observations made in Bangkok in a recent year, the mean annual temperature was 81.6° F. The highest monthly mean was that for April (88° F.), and the lowest that for December (71.5° F.). The maximum temperature for the year was 104° F., recorded in May, and the minimum was 58° F., recorded in December and January. The extreme range was thus 46° F. The rainfall for the year was 52.44 inches, more than a fifth of which (11.97 inches) fell in September. The next wettest months were May (9·88 inches) and June (9.16 inches). The driest months were March and April (no rain), January, February, and November, all with less than one inch.

For Chieng-mai the average annual rainfall during 1900–1904 was 54.36 inches. The wettest months are May–October, the driest January–April (almost rainless).

The latitude of Bangkok is 13° 46′ N., and that of Chieng-mai, 18° 50′ N.

Principal Rivers

FLOWING TO GULF OF SIAM—
- Mei-nam (750 miles).
  - Me-ping (right).
  - Nam-sak (left).
- Bang-pa-kong.
- Me-kong.

FLOWING TO THE MEKONG—
- Nam-mun.

Principal Productions

I. *Vegetable Products*—
Rice, pepper, sesamum, sago, sugar, cocoanuts, betel, hemp, tobacco, cotton, coffee, spices, fruits (mangosteen, mango, &c.), teak and other timbers.

II. *Animals*—
Elephants, cattle, silk-worms, fish.

III. *Minerals*—
Gold, rubies, sapphires, diamonds, tin, coal, iron, zinc, antimony, manganese, quicksilver, copper, salt.

IV. *Manufactures*—
Rice, dyeing, and a few others.

Currency

A. MONEY OF ACCOUNT

1 Catty or Chang	=	20 Tamlungs.
1 Tamlung	=	4 Ticals.
1 Tical	=	4 Salungs.
1 Salung	=	2 Fuangs.
1 Fuang	=	4 Pies.
1 Pie	=	2 Ats.

The Mexican dollar is also in regular use.

B. COINS AND NOTES

Coins.	Fineness.	£	s.	d.
Silver—				
Tical	.902	0	1	4
Salung	—	0	0	4
Fuang	—	0	0	2
Bronze—				
Pie	—	0	0	0.5
At	—	0	0	0.25
Half-At ...	—	0	0	0.125

(Sterling Value.)

The *tical* was formerly fixed by royal edict at three-fifths of the Mexican dollar. In 1902 the mint was closed to the free coinage of silver, with a view to fixing the value of the tical at one-seventeenth of a pound sterling (= 1*s.* $2\frac{2}{17}$*d.*). At that time the exchange was 22 ticals to the pound. The rate was then fixed temporarily at 20, and it was agreed that the tical should follow, as before, any rise over 1*s.* 7*d.* in the dollar, but that it was to be unaffected by any subsequent fall in exchange. The average value of the tical during 1906 was rather over 1*s.* 3*d.* The tical weighs about 233.55 grains. The composition of the bronze coins is: copper, 95; tin, 4; zinc, 1.

Several private banks (Hong-Kong and Shanghai Bank, Chartered Bank of India, Banque de l'Indo-Chine) issue notes, but their notes are being displaced by the currency notes which the Government began to issue in 1902. The total value of currency notes in circulation at a recent date was over 15,000,000 ticals. They are fully secured by a silver reserve.

Weights and Measures

A. Linear Measure

1 Yot = 4 Röeneng.
1 Röeneng = 100 Sen.
1 Sen = 20 Wa.
1 Wa = 4 Sok.
1 Ken = 2 Sok.
1 Sok = 2 Keup.
1 Keup = 12 Nin.

The *ken* is used only in cloth measure. The standard *wa* has a length of 80 inches. The *yot* is fully 10 miles.

B. Surface Measure

The *square sen*, equal to 1975.3 square yards, is used in measuring land.

C. Cubic Measure

1 Coyan = 80 Thangsats.
1 Thangsat = 25 Thanaus.
1 Thang = 20 Thanaus.

The *thangsat*, equal to 4.6875 gallons, is the unit for dry goods; that for liquids is the *thanau*, equal to 1.5 pint.

D. Weights

1 Hap or Picul = 50 Chang.
1 Chang (Catty) = 20 Taels.
1 Tael = 4 Ticals (Bats).

The *chang* is equal to 2.675 pounds avoirdupois.

Finance

A. The Course of Finance

The following table shows the revenue and expenditure in each year from 1902–1903 to 1906–1907 inclusive:—

Years.	Revenue (in ticals).	Expenditure (in ticals).
1902–1903	39,493,000	38,971,271
1903–1904	45,540,000	45,499,365
1904–1905	47,500,000	57,161,622
1905–1906	53,000,000	52,873,083
1906–1907	54,700,000	54,430,438

B. Public Debt

The whole public debt consists in recently contracted loans for railway construction purposes, amounting to £4,000,000.

C. Revenue

The following table shows the principal sources of revenue in a recent year:—

Sources.	Revenue (in ticals).
Customs	6,000,000
Opium, Spirits, Gambling, &c.	19,150,000
Land Tax and Fisheries	7,760,000
Forests and Mines	1,500,000
Capitation Tax	4,800,000
Posts, Telegraphs, and Railways	4,600,000
Other Receipts	10,890,000
Total	54,700,000
	(= about £3,000,000)

D. Expenditure

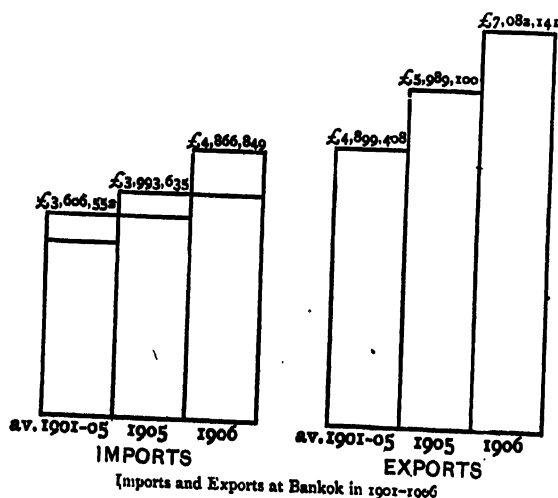
The following table shows the chief heads of expenditure in a recent year:—

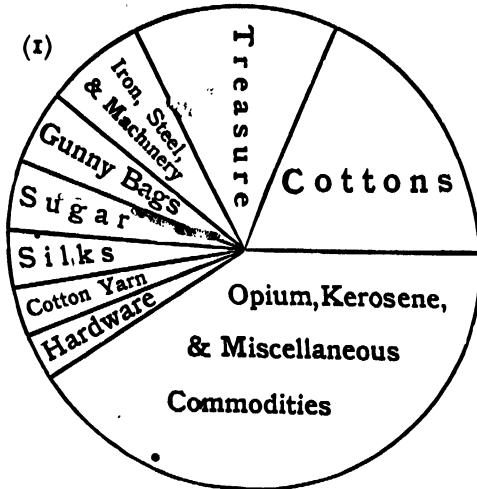
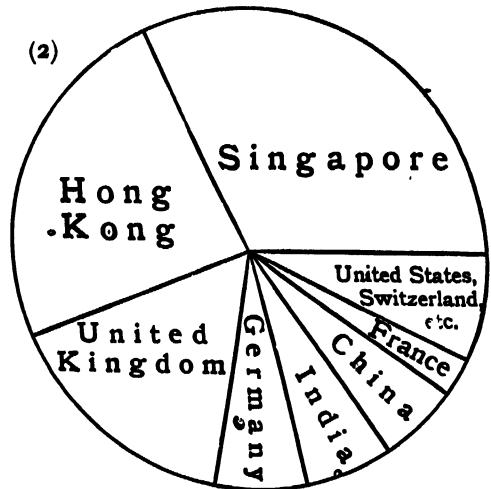
Heads of Expenditure.	Amount (in ticals).
Civil List	6,000,000
Interior	11,548,553
War	12,766,767
Foreign Affairs	1,150,568
Local Government	3,349,389
Finance	1,759,931
Justice	2,113,764
Religion and Education	1,454,656
Public Works	3,256,875
Agriculture and Mines	2,834,081
Other Expenses	6,638,499
Total	52,873,083
	(= about £2,900,000)

Commerce

A. The Course of Trade

The following diagrams show the sterling value of imports and exports at Bangkok in 1905 and 1906, and the averages for the period 1901–1905. The upper portion of the imports rectangles shows the value of imported treasure. Very little treasure is exported.

Imports and Exports at Bankok in 1901–1906

B. Imports

The following circle diagrams show (1) the principal articles imported at Bangkok in a recent year; and (2) the principal countries of origin of the imports. It must be remembered that the Singapore and Hong-Kong trade is mostly transit. It has been ascertained that of the Singapore imports 72 per cent come from the United Kingdom and British possessions.

Principal Commodities imported at Bangkok

Countries of Origin of Imports at Bangkok

The shares of the leading countries of origin in the imports were as follows for one recent year: Singapore, 34½ per cent; Hong-Kong, 28 per cent; United Kingdom, 15½ per cent; Germany, 5½ per cent; China, 5 per cent; India, 3 per cent; Dutch Possessions, 2½ per cent; Switzerland, 2 per cent.

The average value of the import of various commodities over a recent period of years was as follows: Cotton goods, £694,000; cotton yarn, £91,000; treasure, £541,000; iron, steel, and machinery, £230,000; opium, £156,000; gunny bags, £155,000; sugar, £131,000; silk goods, £130,000; kerosene, £90,000; hardware and cutlery, £57,000.

The following diagram shows the chief countries of origin of some of the principal commodities imported:—

Cotton Goods	Singapore	United Kingdom	India	Switzerland, Hong-Kong, Germany, etc.	
Steel, Iron & Machinery	Germany	United Kingdom	Singapore	U.S.A. etc.	
Provisions	Hong-Kong	Other Countries			
Silk Goods	Hong-Kong & Singapore	Other			
Sugar	98% from Singapore & Hong-Kong				
Kerosene	Practically all from Sumatra				
Hardware & Cutlery	Singapore	Germany	United Kingdom	Hong-Kong	China etc.

Sources of the Principal Imports into Bangkok

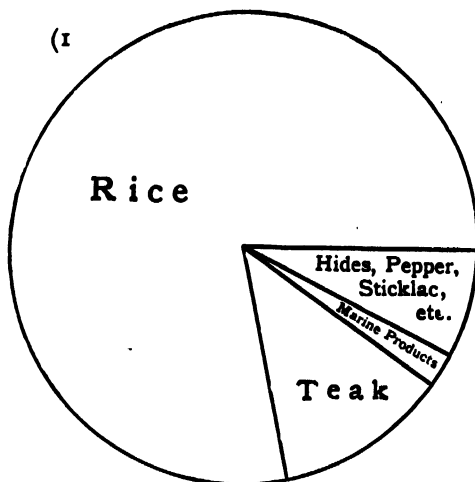
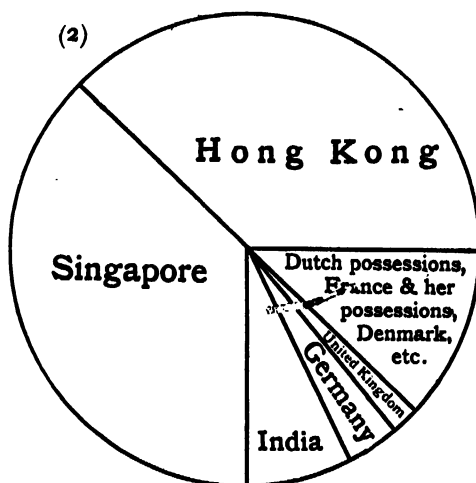
The minor articles imported include the following: Provisions (mostly from Hong-Kong and Singapore), gold-leaf (from Hong-Kong), oils, clothing, matches (from Japan *via* Hong-Kong), china and earthenware, paper and stationery, chemicals and drugs, mattings and manufactures of rattans, bamboo, and straw, tobacconists' stores, fireworks, joss-sticks, brass and brassware, wood, jewellery, coal, &c.

The following diagram shows the principal direct imports from the United Kingdom, according to Board of Trade returns. The large trade *via* Singapore is not, of course, included. The total value in 1906 was £670,138.

Direct Imports from the United Kingdom into Siam

The imports from Burma into Northern Siam *via* Chieng-mai were valued at £159,151 in a recent year, besides £15,993 worth imported by the Raheng route. Cotton goods and other textiles, apparel, and jewellery were the principal commodities.

C. Exports

The following circle diagrams show (1) the principal articles of export from Bangkok in a recent year; and (2) the chief countries of destination of the exports:—

Principal Commodities exported from Bangkok

Destinations of the Exports from Bangkok

In one recent year Hong-Kong took 45½ per cent of the exports; Singapore, 39½; India, 6; and Europe, 7½.

The average value of the export of various commodities over a recent period was as follows: Rice, £3,848,000; teak, £482,000; marine products, £108,000; pepper, £62,000; treasure, £56,000; hides, £55,000; silk goods, £29,000; sticklac, £26,000; bullocks, £25,000; woods other than teak, £23,000; raw silk, £18,000.

The following diagram shows the chief countries of destination of the leading exports:—

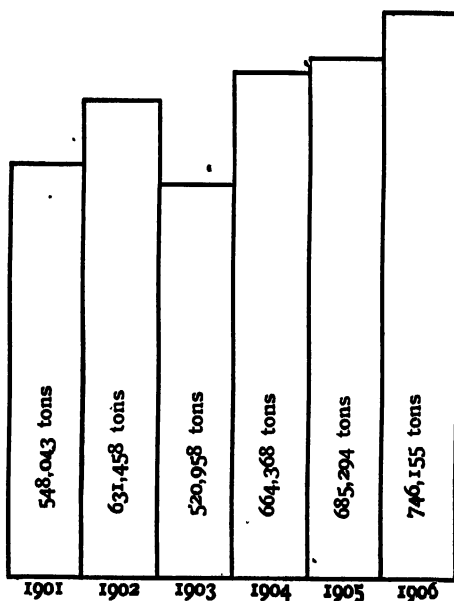
Destinations of the Principal Exports from Bangkok

The following diagram shows the nature and extent of the direct exports from Siam to the United Kingdom, according to Board of Trade returns. The indirect trade between the two countries is, of course, excluded. The total value in 1906 was £571,419.

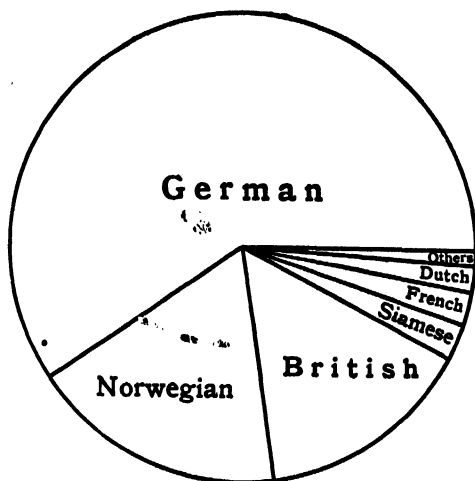
Exports from Siam to the United Kingdom

The total value of exports to Burma from Northern Siam *via* Chieng-mai was £215,758 in a recent year, besides £11,687 worth sent *via* the Raheng route. The chief commodities were teak, cattle, and elephants.

Shipping

The following diagram shows the tonnage entered at Bangkok in each year from 1901 to 1906 inclusive:—

Tonnage entered at Bangkok during 1901–1906

Of the 1906 tonnage entered, 14,167 tons represented sailing vessels and 731,988 tons steamships.

The following circle diagram shows the distribution among the chief flags of the total tonnage entered at Bangkok in a recent year:—

Distribution among Principal Flags of Tonnage entered at Bangkok

Railways

A. Completed or Building—

Bangkok—Paknam (14 miles).
Bangkok—Korat (165 miles). Branch to Lopburi (26 miles), and thence ultimately, by way of Paknampo, Pichai, Pitsanulok, and Utaradit, to Lakhon-Lampang (branches to Phre and Chiengmai), and thence to Chiengrai on the Mekong: distance from Paknampo to Chiengrai, about 340 miles.
Bangkok—Ratburi—Petchaburi (95 miles).
Bangkok—Tachin—Meklong (40 miles).

B. Projected—

Bangkok—Chantabun—Siracha.

Posts and Telegraphs

The total length of telegraph line is now about 2900 miles. Bangkok is in communication with Chantabun, Chiengmai, Saïgon, Maulmain, Penang, &c. Siam joined the Postal Union in 1885. The number of letters transmitted in a recent year was 950,000 internal, and 631,000 external.

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS AND DEPENDENCIES

Area and Population

Divisions	Area in Sq. Miles.	Pop. 1891.	Pop. 1901.
Straits Settlements—			
Singapore	206	184,554	228,555
Christmas Island	40	—	900 (1902).
Cocos (Keeling) Islands	10	—	638 (1903).
Malacca	659	92,170	95,487
Penang (Prince of Wales Island)	107		
Province Wellesley	270	235,618	248,207
The Dindings (Pangkor, &c.)	265		
Federated Malay States—			
Perak	8,000	—	329,665
Selangor	3,200	—	168,789
Negri Sembilan (including Sungei Ujong, Jelebu, Sri Menanti, Johol, Rembau, Tampin, &c.)	3,000	—	96,028
Pahang	12,000	—	84,113
Dependency—			
Johor	9,000	—	200,000 (est.)
Total	36,757		1,452,382

Since the beginning of 1907 the island of Labuan (see p. 226) has been administratively incorporated in Singapore. The states of Kelantan and Trengganu were ceded by Siam to Britain in 1908.

Population according to Race

Races.	Numbers.
Chinese	281,933
Malays	215,058
Indians	57,150
Eurasians	7,663
Europeans and Americans	5,058
Others	5,387
Total	572,249

These figures relate only to the Straits Settlements proper.

Principal Towns

Towns.	Population.
Singapore (cap. Singapore, and of whole colony)	200,000
George Town (cap. Penang)	55,000
Malacca (cap. Malacca)	20,000

Other towns are: Lumut (Dindings), Taiping (cap. Perak), Kuala Lumpor (cap. Selangor), Seremban (cap. Negri Sembilan), Kuala Lipis (cap. Pahang), New Johor (cap. Johor), Kuala Kangsar (Perak), Klang (Selangor), Pekan (Pahang), Butterworth (Wellesley), Port Weld (Perak), Teluk Anson (Perak), Port Dickson (Negri Sembilan).

Climate

In a recent year the maximum temperature at Singapore was 91.8° F. (in March), the minimum, 70.2° F. (in January), and the mean, 79.7° F. The rainfall was 106.19 inches, but this was above the annual average. In another recent year the rainfall of the settlements was as follows: Singapore, 82.28 inches; Penang, 94.56 inches; Dindings, 89.91 inches; Wellesley, 91.27 inches; Malacca, 79.2 inches. The north-east monsoon prevails from middle of October to end of April; the south-west from beginning of May to middle of October.

Principal Rivers

FLOWING TO STRAITS OF MALACCA—

Muda (separates Wellesley from Lower Siam).
Krian (separates Perak from Wellesley and Lower Siam).
Larut, Perak } in Perak.
Bernam (separates Perak from Selangor).
Selangor, Klang, Langat } in Selangor.
Linggi (separates Selangor from Malacca).
Muar (separates Malacca from Johor).
Batu Pahat, Johor } in Johor.

FLOWING TO SOUTH CHINESE SEA—

Sedili (in Johor).
Endau (separates Johor from Pahang).
Rompin, Pahang, Kuantan } in Pahang.

Principal Productions

I. *Vegetable Products*—

Cocoa-nuts (especially Penang and Wellesley), rice, tapioca (chiefly Malacca and Wellesley), sugar (especially Penang, Wellesley, and Perak), coffee (especially the federated states), pine-apples (Singapore), indigo, pepper, tea, rubber, gutta-percha, gambier, ramie (especially Perak), fruit (especially Malacca, Penang, and Wellesley), nutmegs and cloves (especially Wellesley), timbers.

II. *Animals*—

Notably fish and shrimps (latter caught at Penang and Malacca, and made into *belachan*, a favourite condiment).

III. *Minerals*—

Tin (Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan, Pahang, Malacca), gold, lead, iron, copper, plumbago, silver, zinc, &c.

IV. *Manufactures*—

Tin-smelting (Pulau Brani, near Singapore, and Butterworth), pine-apple tinning (Singapore), biscuits (Singapore).

Currency

A. MONEY OF ACCOUNT

1 Dollar = 100 Cents.

B. COINS AND NOTES

By an Order in Council the Mexican dollar was made the standard coin in 1895, and the British dollar, Hong-Kong dollar, and Japanese silver yen were to be regarded as equal to it in value. An Order in Council of 1903 authorized the coinage of a *Straits Settlements Dollar* of the same weight and fineness as the British dollar, and in 1904 this was made the standard coin of the colony. In 1906 the value of the dollar was fixed at 2*s.* 4*d.* The present coins are as follows:—

Coins.	Fineness.	£	s.	d.
Silver—				
Mexican Dollar ...	.9027	0	2	4
British Dollar ...	.9	0	2	4
Hong-Kong Dollar	.9	0	2	4
50 Cents ...	.8	0	1	2
20 Cents ...	.8	0	0	5.6
10 Cents ...	.8	0	0	2.8
5 Cents ...	.8	0	0	1.4
Bronze—				
1 Cent ...	—	0	0	0.28
½ Cent ...	—	0	0	0.14
¼ Cent ...	—	0	0	0.07

The sovereign was made legal tender in 1906. The silver coins below the dollar in value are legal tender up to two dollars, the bronze coins up to one dollar.

The total value of government currency notes in circulation at the end of a recent year was over 22,000,000 dollars. The average bank-note circulation for a recent year was 1,866,215.

Weights and Measures

British Imperial weights and measures were made the standards in 1886, but several native measures are still in use. The *chupak* = a quart, and the *gautang* = a gallon. The *kati* is a weight of 1⅓ lb. avoirdupois. The *pikul* = 100 katis, and the *koyan* = 40 pikuls.

Finance

A. The Course of Finance

The following table shows the revenue and expenditure for each of the years from 1901 to 1906 inclusive:—

Years.		Revenue (in dollars).		Expenditure (in dollars).
1901	...	7,041,686	...	7,315,001
1902	...	7,754,736	...	7,601,354
1903	...	7,953,496	...	8,185,952
1904	...	10,746,578	...	10,848,989
1905	...	11,657,424	...	10,976,525
1906	...	9,618,314	...	9,333,901

Sterling value of revenue in 1906 was £1,122,137, taking the dollar at 2*s.* 4*d.*

B. Revenue

The revenue for a recent year was derived from the three settlements in the following proportions:—

Singapore ...	... 6,043,618	dollars.
Penang ...	... 2,866,816	,,
Malacca ...	... 707,880	,,
Total	... 9,618,314	,,

The following table shows the principal sources of the revenue in a recent year:—

Sources.	Revenue (in dollars).
Licences	4,873,670
Stamps	614,128
Port and Harbour Dues ...	233,975
Post-Office and Telegraphs ...	331,389
Land	310,514
Other Sources	1,391,060
Total	7,754,736

C. Expenditure

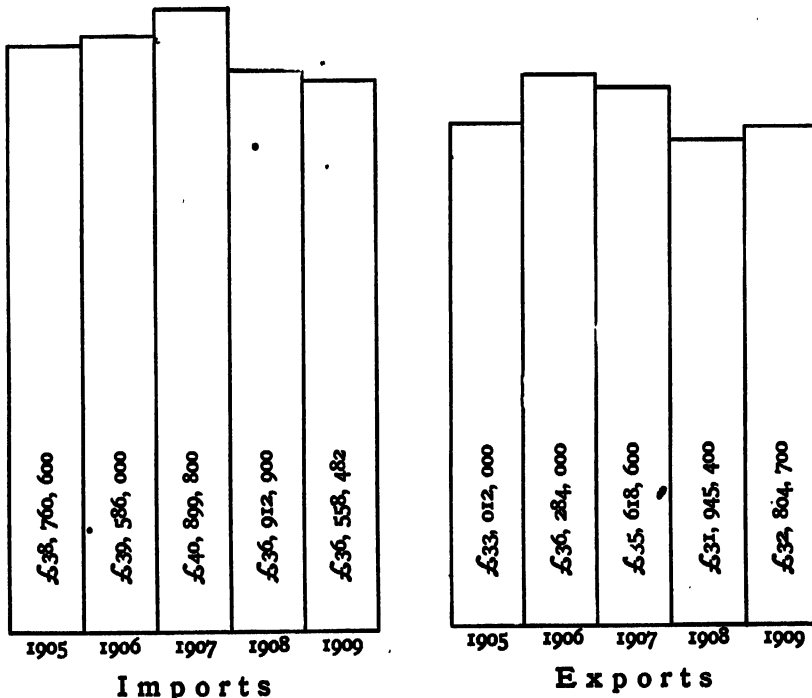
The following table shows the principal heads of expenditure in a recent year:—

Heads.	Amount (in dollars).
Salaries	2,321,665
Public Works...	1,858,612
Military	1,383,830
Education	136,300
Police	185,321
Marine Department	189,966
Transport	15,201
Other Heads	1,510,459
Total	7,601,354

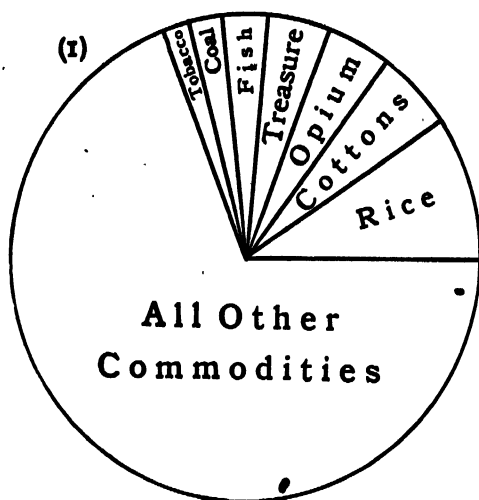
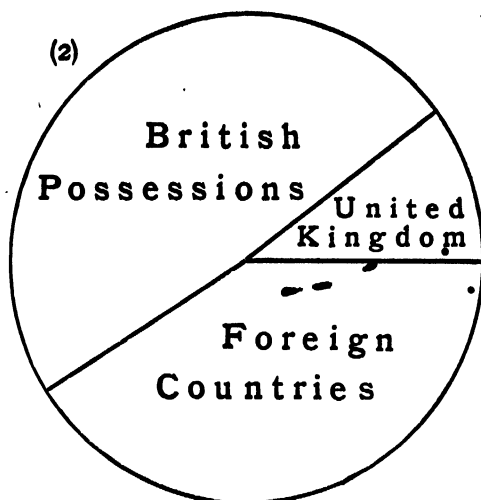
D. Public Debt

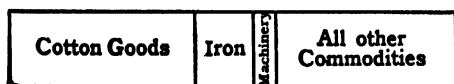
The liabilities of the colony on January 1, 1907, amounted to 25,027,229 dollars, and the total assets, 28,249,987 dollars, leaving a credit balance of 3,222.758 dollars.

Commerce

A. The Course of Trade

The accompanying diagrams show the value of the imports and exports of the colony in each year from 1905 to 1909 inclusive.

B. Imports

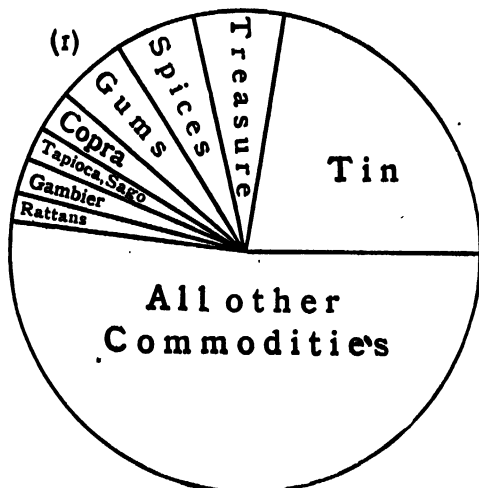
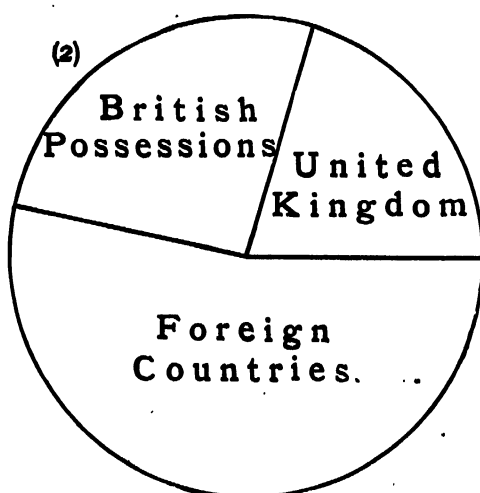
The following circle diagrams show (1) the principal commodities imported in a recent year; and (2) the principal sources of supply of the imports:—

Principal Commodities imported into the Straits Settlements

Sources of Supply of the Imports into the Straits Settlements

The following diagram shows the principal imports from the United Kingdom, according to Board of Trade returns. The value in 1906 was £3,791,723.

Imports from the United Kingdom into the Straits Settlements

The ports of the Straits Settlements are practically free from duties on imports and exports, and partly for this reason, partly because of their situation, they carry on an immense transit trade. Import duties are levied only on ale, wine, and spirits.

The harbour of Singapore is protected by forts and submarine mines, and the town contains an imperial garrison.

C. Exports

The following circle diagrams show (1) the principal commodities exported in a recent year; and (2) the chief countries of destination of the exports:—

Principal Commodities exported from the Straits Settlements

Destinations of the Exports from the Straits Settlements

The following diagram shows the principal articles sent to the United Kingdom, according to Board of Trade returns. The total value in 1906 was £8,903,228.

Tin | Rubber | Pepper | Gutta Percha | All Other Commodities

The following table shows the distribution of the trade (including inter-settlement trade and treasure) among the settlements in a recent year:—

Settlements.	Imports.	Exports.
Singapore	$248,981,557	$211,691,906
Penang	91,801,957	80,925,504
Malacca	4,254,275	3,630,521
Total	$345,037,789	$296,247,931

Shipping and Ports

The total tonnage of vessels entered at the ports of the colony was 9,432,368 in a recent year.

Besides Singapore, George Town, and Malacca, the following ports may be mentioned: Port Weld and Teluk Anson, in Perak; Lumut, in the Dindings; Klang, in Selangor; and Port Dickson, in Negri Sembilan.

Railways

Prai (Wellesley)—through Perak, Selangor, and Negri Sembilan (Port Dickson)—branches to Port Weld, Lumut, Kuala Lipis, Kuala Semantan (Pahang), &c. —partly constructed.

Singapore—Kranji (on Straits of Johor).

DUTCH EAST INDIES

Area and Population

Divisions.		Area in Sq. Miles.		Population.
Sumatra		175,480		3,825,000
Achin (govt.)	20,540		534,000	
West Coast (govt.; Tapanuli and Padang)	31,780		1,527,000	
Benkulen (res.)	9,430		159,000	
Lampongs (res.)	11,340		143,000	
Palembang (res.)	53,700		693,000	
East Coast (res.)	35,470		684,000	
Indragiri (in Rhio res.)	13,220		85,000	
Rhio-Lingga Archipelago (res.), including Natuna, Anamba, and Tambilan Islands		3,150		100,000
Banka (res.)		4,470		110,000
Billiton (asst.-res.)		1,870		45,000
Java (21 res.)		48,670		26,950,000
Madura (res.)		2,090		1,800,000
Bali } (res.)		2,240		1,045,000
Lombok } (res.)		1,820		
Sumbawa (with Moyo, Komodo, &c.; in Celebes res.)		5,890		—
Flores (with Rindia, &c.; in ress. of Celebes and Timor)		6,000		—
Solor group (Solor, Adenara, Lomblen, &c.) and Allor group (Allor, Pantar, &c.)		2,010		—
Dutch Timor (res. includes next three and part of Flores)		6,370		745,000 (res.)
Rotti (in res. Timor)		700		—
Savu (in res. Timor)		230		—
Sumba (in res. Timor)		4,280		—
Dutch Borneo		213,600		1,170,000
West Coast (res.)	56,050		370,000	
South and East Coast (res.)	157,550		800,000	
Celebes (the two residencies of Celebes and Menado comprise also Sumbawa, part of Flores, Saleyer Islands, and other groups)		69,250		2,020,000 (ress.)
Islands dependent on Celebes, not already given		8,310		—
Molucca Islands		44,030		430,000
Amboina (res.)	19,870		295,000	
Ternate (res.)	24,160		135,000	
Dutch New Guinea		152,390		240,000
Total		752,850		38,480,000

BORNEO

Area and Population

Divisions.	Area in Sq. Miles.		Population.	
BRITISH BORNEO		79,030		760,000
North Borneo (protectorate)	31,000		200,000	
Labuan[1]	30		10,000	
Brunei (protectorate)	8,000		50,000	
Sarawak (protectorate)	40,000		500,000	
DUTCH BORNEO		213,600		1,170,000
Total		292,630		1,930,000

TIMOR

Area and Population

Divisions.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
Dutch Timor	6,370	200,000
Portuguese Timor	6,220	200,000
Total	12,590	400,000

Principal Races in the Malay Archipelago

I. OCEANIC NEGRO—

Papuans, from Flores eastward.

II. INDONESIAN—

Mentawi Islanders, Battas (Sumatra), Dyaks and other races in Borneo.

III. MALAY—

Malays proper (Siak, Jambi, Menangkabo, &c., in Sumatra; Ternate; Tidor), Javanese (Central and Eastern Java), Sundanese (Western Java), Madurese (Madura and North-eastern Java), Balinese (Bali), Sassaks (Lombok), Bugis (Celebes, &c.), Achinese (North Sumatra), Korinchis (Sumatra), Rejang (Sumatra), Mandars (Celebes), Makassars (Celebes), Serwatti Islanders, &c.

IV. OTHER—

Chinese, Arabs, Europeans, &c.

The following table gives the approximate numbers of the principal racial groups represented in the Dutch East Indies:—

Races.		Number.
Europeans and those assimilated to them		75,927
Dutch	72,019	
Germans	1,382	
British	441	
Belgians	350	
French	232	
Swiss	232	
Others	1,271	
Natives and those assimilated to them		38,400,000
Natives	37,800,000	
Chinese	550,000	
Arabs	30,000	
Other Orientals	20,000	

Religion

The number of Christians among the natives and foreign Orientals was in a recent year as follows:—Java and Madura, 34,000; the Outposts (all the rest), 390,000; total, 424,000.

Principal Towns and Settlements of the Malay Archipelago

Towns, &c.	Population.
JAVA—	
Surabaya	146,944
Batavia (cap. of Dutch East Indies)	115,887
Surakarta	110,000
Samarang	90,000
Jokjokarta	60,000
Buitenzorg	25,000
Meester Cornelis	24,000
Cheribon	21,000
Chilatjap	11,000
MADURA—	
Sumenep	19,000
Pamekasan (cap.)	8,000
SUMATRA—	
Palembang	54,000
Padang	32,000
Medan	13,000
Benkulen	7,000
Kota Raja (Achin)	4,500
RHIO (BINTANG)—	
Tanjong Pinang (cap.)	4,500
BANKA—	
Muntok (cap.)	4,500
BILLITON—	
Tanjong Padang (cap.)	5,500

[1] Labuan was transferred to the Straits Settlements at the beginning of 1907.

Towns, &c.	Population.
Dutch Borneo—	
Banjarmasin (cap. East and South)	52,000
Pontianak (cap. West)	18,000
Sarawak—	
Kuching (cap.)	20,000
Sibu	—
North Borneo—	
Sandakan (cap.)	7,000
Jesselton	—
Brunei—	
Brunei (cap.)	15,000
Labuan—	
Victoria (cap.)	1,500
Celebes—	
Makassar (cap. res. Celebes)	22,000
Menado (cap. res. Menado)	9,000
Gorontalo	—
Tondano	12,000
Amurang	3,000
Bonthain	4,000
Palos	3,000
Great Sangir—	
Taruna	—
Moluccas—	
Amboina (cap. res.)	8,000
Ternate (cap. res.)	3,000
Batjan	—
Kajeli (Buru)	—
Masareti (Buru)	—
Sidangoli (Gilolo)	—
Galela (Gilolo)	—
Patani (Gilolo)	—
Wahai (Ceram)	—
Kairatu (Ceram)	—
Waru (Ceram)	—
Amahai (Ceram)	—
Banda (Banda Nera)	—
Kei Islands—	
Tual (cap.)	—
Bali—	
Buleleng (Singaraja, cap.)	9,000
Temukus	—
Lombok—	
Mataram (cap.)	—
Ampanam	—
Praya	—
Sisi	—
Sumbawa—	
Bima (cap.)	5,000
Sumbawa	5,000
Flores—	
Larantuka (cap.)	—
Maumeri	—
Ambugaga	—
Adenara—	
Terong (cap.)	—
Ombay—	
Allor Ketjil (cap.)	—
Timor—	
Kupang (Dutch cap.)	7,000
Dilli (Portuguese cap.)	3,000
Savu—	
Laipaka (Seba, cap.)	—
Sumba (Sandalwood)—	
Waingapu (cap.)	—
Memboro	—
Melolo	—
Wetta—	
Ilwaki	—
Kissa—	
Pura-pura	—
Damma—	
Wulur	—
Baba—	
Tepa	—

Climate

The following table gives some particulars of temperature and rainfall for a number of stations in the Malay Archipelago:—

Stations.	Latitude.	Mean Annual Temp. (°F.).	Highest Monthly Mean Temp. (°F.).	Lowest Monthly Mean Temp. (°F.).	Annual Rainfall (Inches).
Sumatra—					
Kota Raja	5° 34′ N.	—	—	—	67.3
Singkel	2° 16′ N.	—	—	—	180.6
Padang	0° 56′ S.	79.9	81	79.2	180.2
Palembang	2° 58′ S.	80.6	81.4	79.9	107.2
Lohat	3° 34′ S.	80	—	—	139.5
Benkulen	3° 48′ S.	—	—	—	130.5
Java—					
Batavia	6° 8′ S.	78.7	79.5	77.6	72.3
Buitenzorg	6° 38′ S.	77	77.9	76.1	172.7
Samarang	6° 58′ S.	—	—	—	87.7
Surabaya	7° 14′ S.	—	—	—	67.5
Surakarta	7° 35′ S.	—	—	—	84.6
Chilatjap	7° 43′ S.	—	—	—	151.4
Banjuwangi	8° 12′ S.	80	—	—	55.1
Borneo—					
Sandakan	5° 50′ N.	79.5	80.8	78.4	127.2
Labuan	5° 15′ N.	—	—	—	136.4
Kuching	1° 30′ N.	—	—	—	159.6
Pontianak	0° 1′ S.	—	—	—	126.1
Banjarmasin	3° 18′ S.	80.8	81.9	80	97
Celebes—					
Menado	1° 30′ N.	—	—	—	105.8
Makassar	5° 8′ S.	—	—	—	118.3
Moluccas—					
Ternate	0° 47′ N.	—	—	—	87
Amboina	3° 4′ S.	79.4	81	77.4	143.9
Bali—					
Buleleng	8° 9′ S.	—	—	—	46.6
Sumbawa—					
Bima	8° 28′ S.	—	—	—	47.8
Timor—					
Kupang	10° 11′ S.	—	—	—	60.1
Kei Islands—					
Tual	6° S.	—	—	—	99.4

The points to be specially noted in the above table are the high mean temperature of the year, the small monthly variation of temperature, and the generally very high rainfall. The distribution of rainfall throughout the months varies with latitude and other circumstances, being in some cases fairly uniform, in others distinctly seasonal.

Principal Volcanoes of Java

* Denotes an active volcano. † Denotes one not wholly extinct. The others are apparently extinct.

Volcanoes.	Height in Feet.
EASTERN JAVA—	
*Semeru (highest peak in island)	12,044
Arjuna	10,935
*Raun	10,925
†Lawu	10,676
Argopura	10,138
Kawi	9,381
*Ijen	9,187
*Tenger (largest crater)	8,937
†Wilis	8,369
Penunggungan	5,413
*Lamongan	5,370
*Kelut	—
CENTRAL JAVA—	
*Slamat	11,240
*Sumbing	10,941
*Sundara	10,249
Merbabu	10,223
*Merapi	9,404
Prau	8,389
Muria	5,234
WESTERN JAVA—	
*Cherimai	10,073
*Gede	9,718
Chikurai	9,242
*Papandayang	8,611
Patuwa	7,828
Malabar	7,683
*Guntur	7,362
*Galunggung	7,313
Salak	7,266
Tunggul	7,224
*Tangkuban Prau	6,808
†Karang	5,834

Principal Volcanoes of Sumatra

Volcanoes.	Height in Feet.
Luse	12,140
*Korinchi (Indrapura)	12,000
*Dempo	10,560
Abong-abong	10,300
Ophir	9,600
*Merapi	9,570
Singalang	9,480
Talang	8,350
Tangkamus (Keizers Spits)	7,420
Yamura (Goudberg)	5,670
*Kaba	5,420
*Sorick	—
*Krakatoa (a neighbouring small island)	—

Principal Volcanoes of the rest of the Malay Archipelago

Volcanoes.	Height in Feet.
BALI—	
†Agung (Bali Peak)	10,500
*Batu Kau	9,600
Abang	7,500
*Batur	6,400
LOMBOK—	
Rinjani (Peak of Lombok)	11,810
SUMBAWA—	
†Tambora	9,040
Aru Hassa	5,570
Ngenges	5,560
Lante	5,420
Dende	5,150
Soro Mandi	4,550
Gunong Api (adjacent island)	6,000
FLORES—	
Romba	9,190
*Lobetobi	7,430
Rokka	6,560
*Gunong Api	—
†Illimandri	5,170
Katabelo	3,600
Palani (adjacent island)	4,600
ADENARA—	
Wokka	4,880
LOMBLEN—	
Lamararap	5,800
*Lobetolle	4,890
*DAMMA—	3,000
*NILA	1,590
SERUA—	
*Leghelala	700
BORNEO—	
Melabu	—
CELEBES—	
†Klabat (all in north-east corner)	6,800
†Saputan (all in north-east corner)	5,960
†Lokon (all in north-east corner)	5,240
†Sudara (all in north-east corner)	4,400
Peak of Bonthain	10,090
*RUANG	2,200
*SIAU	6,000
GREAT SANGIR—	
*Awu	5,000
BANDA ISLANDS—	
*Gunong Api	2,200
*MAKIAN	—
†MOTIR	2,800
TIDOR	5,900
*TERNATE	5,600
GILOLO (HALMAHERA)—	
*Gamakora	—
*Tarakan	620

Principal Non-Volcanic Summits of the Malay Archipelago

Summits.	Height in Feet.	Summits.	Height in Feet.
BORNEO—		SUMBAWA—	
Kinabalu ...	13,700	Tafelberg ...	—
BATJAN—		MOA—	
Labua	7,150	Karbau	4,100
BURU—		TIMOR—	
Tumahu ...	8,530	Alas	12,250
CERAM—		Kabalaki ...	10,000
Nusa-heli ...	9,610	Lakan	6,500

Principal Rivers of the Malay Archipelago

The most important navigable streams are denoted by an asterisk. The chief towns or stations on the banks are named.

JAVA—

Flowing to Java Sea (N.):
Tarum.
Manok.
*Solo (310 miles): Surakarta.
*Brantas: Surabaya.

Flowing to Indian Ocean (S.):
Tandawi.

SUMATRA—

Flowing to Malacca Strait, &c. (E.):
Paneh and Bila.
*Rakan (180 miles).
*Siak (220 miles): Siak.
*Kampar.
*Indragiri: Ringat.
*Jambi (Batang-Hari, 600 miles): Jambi.
*Musi (Palembang, 400 miles): Palembang.

Flowing to Indian Ocean (W.):
Singkel (100 miles).
Taro (100 miles).
Gadis.

BORNEO—

Flowing to Java Sea (S.):
Lamandu.
Pembuan.
Sampit: Sampit.
Katingan.
Kahayan (Great Dayak).
Kapuas Murung (Little Dayak).
*Barito (600 miles): Banjarmasin.

Flowing to Makassar Strait (S.E.):
Pasir: Pasir.
*Kutei (Mahakkam, 450 miles): Tengarung, Samarinda.

Flowing to Celebes Sea (N.E.):
Beru (Kalai Segah): Beru.
Bulungan (Kayan): Bulungan.

Flowing to Sulu Sea (N.E.):
Segamah.
*Kinabatangan.
Labuk.
Sugut.

Flowing north-west (*China Sea*):
Padas: Menumbok.
Sipitong.
Trusan.
*Limbang (Brunei): Brunei, Brooketown.
Baram: Claudetown.
*Rejang (400 miles): Sibu.
*Batang Lupar.
Sarawak: Kuching.

Flowing south-west (*Karimata Strait, &c.*):
*Sambas: Sambas.
*Kapuas (500 miles): Benut, Sintang, Tojan, Pontianak.
Simpang: Simpang.
Pawan: Ketapan.

CELEBES—
Sadang (200 miles): to Makassar Strait.
Bahu Solo (120 miles): to Gulf of Tomaiki.
*Jenrana: to Gulf of Boni, near Boni.
Posso: to Gulf of Tomini.
Tondino: to Celebes Sea, at Menado.
Gorontalo: to Gulf of Tomini, below Gorontalo.

Principal Productions of Java and Madura

I. *Vegetable Products*—
Rice (especially Western Java), coffee, sugar, tobacco, cinchona, tea, cocoa, indigo, cotton, pepper, copra, cocoa-nuts, ground-nuts, gum-dammar, maize, nutmegs, cloves, bananas, cassava, yams, cabbages, potatoes, fruits (durian, mangosteen, rambutan, &c.), teak, bamboo, &c.

II. *Animals*—
Buffaloes, cattle, horses.

III. *Minerals*—
Coal, petroleum, sulphur, salt, gold, lead, copper, zinc, iodine, marble (the metals in small quantities).

IV. *Manufactures*—
Bamboo hats, mats, and boxes, rice, quinine, sugar, ice, soda-water, arrack, soap, &c.

The following table shows the extent of the cultivated area of Java and Madura in each year from 1899 to 1904 inclusive:—

Years.	Area Cultivated (in Acres).
1899	10,122,550
1900	10,082,166
1901	10,114,785
1902	10,145,724
1903	10,693,515
1904	10,643,368

The following table shows the distribution of the cultivated area among the principal crops in a recent year:—

Crops.	Area (in Acres).
Rice	5,344,291
Maize, Arachis, Cotton, &c.	4,853,823
Sugar-cane	336,283
Tobacco	274,550
Indigo...	33,357

The following table shows the output of various crops for recent years:—

Crops.	Production.
Sugar	1,014,126 tons.
Coffee	34,633 ,,
Cinchona	8,590 ,,
Tobacco	20,043 ,,
Tea	9,320 ,,
Indigo	520 ,,
Cacao	514 ,,

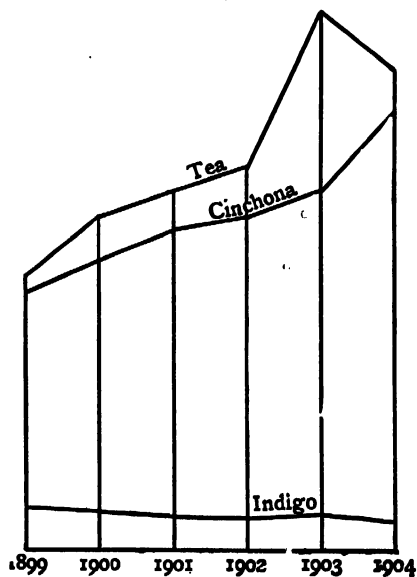
The following graphs show the variations in the production of some leading crops in Java and Madura (in the case of coffee, in the Dutch East Indies) during recent years. The diagrams are not drawn to the same scale.

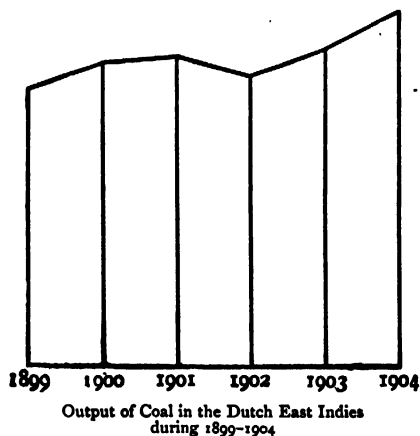
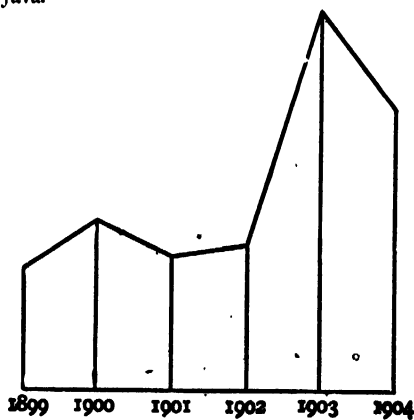
Production of Sugar in Java and Madura during 1899–1904

Production of Coffee in Dutch East Indies, and of Tobacco in Java and Madura, during 1899–1904

The output of coffee for 1904 was 77,578,332 lbs.; of tobacco, 44,896,445 lbs.

The output of sugar in 1904 was 1,014,126 tons.

The output of tea, cinchona, and indigo in 1904 was 20,875,558, 19,241,130, and 1,168,068 lbs. respectively.

Production of Tea, Cinchona, and Indigo in Java and Madura during 1899–1904

The following graphs show the variations in the production of coal and petroleum in recent years. The production of Sumatra and Borneo is included with that of Java.

Output of Coal in the Dutch East Indies during 1899–1904

Output of Petroleum in the Dutch East Indies during 1899–1904

The output of coal in 1904 was 231,159 tons, and of petroleum in the same year, 147,303,420 gallons.

The number of live stock in Java is roughly as follows: Buffaloes, 2,436,000; oxen and cows, 2,654,000; horses, 418,000.

Productions of Sumatra, &c.

I. *Vegetable Products—*

Rice, coffee, black and white pepper, tobacco, nutmegs, gambier (especially Rhio-Lingga), camphor, sweet-potatoes (Nacco Islands), gutta-percha, rattans, gum-dammar, benzoin, catechu, sugar-cane (Engaño), pine-apple (Engaño), bamboos, caoutchouc, copra, cocoa-nut (Nias and Nacco Islands, Mentawi Islands, &c.), sago palm (Mentawi Islands), many timbers, &c.

II. *Minerals—*

Coal, petroleum, tin (especially Banka and Billiton), copper, iron, sulphur, antimony, gold, silver (Banka), lead (Banka).

III. *Manufactures—*

Krisses, sarongs, furniture, cottons (Nias), copper and gold work (Nias)—native industries.

The production of tobacco in Sumatra is about 20,000 tons a year, and of tin in Banka, Billiton, and Rhio about 14,000 tons a year. For coal and petroleum see under Java.

Productions of Borneo

I. *Vegetable Products—*

Rice, sugar-cane, coffee, tobacco, pepper, sago, tapioca, cotton, indigo, cocoa-nuts, copra, gambier, areca-nuts, Manila hemp, various palms, gum-dammar, gutta-percha, rattans, various kinds of timber, &c.

II. *Animal Products—*

Bees'-wax, edible birds'-nests, bêche-de-mer, fish, &c.

III. *Minerals—*

Coal, petroleum, antimony, gold, platinum, iron, lead, tin, zinc, arsenic, copper, silver, diamonds, &c.

IV. *Manufactures—*

Krisses, cotton spinning and weaving, diamond-cutting, pottery, goldsmiths' work, gongs, silk sarongs, cutch, saw-milling, ship-building, &c.—mostly native industries.

Productions of Celebes

I. *Vegetable Products—*

Coffee, rice, cotton, nutmegs, cloves, tobacco, copra, copal, gum-dammar, rattans, vanilla, cacao, oranges and other fruits, &c.

II. *Animal Products—*

Trepang, turtle, tortoise-shell, pearl oysters, &c.

III. *Minerals—*

Coal, gold, iron, copper, &c.

IV. *Manufactures*

Sarongs and other native productions.

Productions of the Moluccas

I. *Vegetable Productions—*

Coffee, cacao, cocoa-nuts (especially Matabello Islands and Ceram), nutmegs (especially Banda Lontar and Ternate), cloves (especially Amboina), cardamoms, rice (especially Gilolo), kauari-nut, cajuput-oil tree (especially Buru), tobacco (especially Makian and Ternate), palms, gum-dammar (especially Ternate), bread-fruit (Amboina), gum-copal (especially Ternate), sago (Ceram), timber (especially Kei Islands), Amboina wood.

II. *Animal Products—*

Shells (Amboina), turtle, &c.

III. *Minerals—*

Clay (Maré), coal (Batjan, Ceram), gold (especially Batjan), copper (Batjan), &c.

IV. *Manufactures—*

Ship-building (Kei Islands), carving (Kei Islands), cajuput oil (Buru), cocoa-nut oil (Matabello Islands), &c.—all native industries.

Productions of the Lesser Sunda Islands

I. *Vegetable Products—*

Coffee (especially Bali, Lombok, Timor), maize (especially Lombok, Sumba, Timor, Timor Laut), rice (especially Lombok, Sumbawa, Flores, Timor, Sumba), tobacco (especially Bali, Rotti), copra, cinnamon (especially Flores), dyes, sandal-wood (especially Flores, Timor), manioc (especially Timor Laut), sweet-potatoes (especially Timor Laut), sugar (especially Rotti, Timor Laut), cotton, &c.

II. *Animals and Animal Products—*

Cattle, buffaloes, ponies (Sumbawa, Rotti, Savu, Sumba), horses, birds'-nests, tortoise-shell, bees'-wax, goats (Sumba).

III. *Minerals—*

Gold (Bali, Sumbawa, Flores, Timor), iron (Bali, Flores, Timor), arsenic, petroleum (Sumbawa, Timor), tin (Flores), copper (Timor), coal (Timor).

IV. *Manufactures—*

Native industries similar to those of the previously-mentioned islands.

Currency

The currency of the Dutch East Indies is that of the Netherlands. The *guilder* or *florin* of 100 *cents* is equal to 1*s.* 8*d.* in value in the Netherlands, but the colonial guilder is of somewhat smaller value, generally about ⅞ths of the Netherlands one (*i.e.* 1*s.* 5½*d.*). The gold coins are: 10 florins and ducat (= 5¼ florins); the silver coins, florin, rixdollar (= 2½ florins), half-florin, quarter-florin, and tenth-florin; and the only copper coin, the cent; all Netherlands coins. Several other coins circulate in various parts, including Mexican and Hong-Kong dollars, Japanese yens, Straits Settlements 20- and 10-cent pieces, and cents of the Straits Settlements, Sarawak, and British North Borneo.

The Java Bank at Batavia issues notes for 1000, 500, 300, 200, 100, and 50 guilders; also a 25-guilder note exchangeable only for silver.

Finance

A. The Course of Finance

The following table gives the revenue and expenditure of the Dutch East Indies for each year from 1901 to 1906 inclusive:—

Years.	Revenue (Guilders).	Expenditure (Guilders).
1901	149,296,483	149,999,854
1902	152,186,414	159,728,866
1903	154,113,940	167,174,790
1904	152,530,311	166,596,506
1905	155,417,971	166,130,078
1906	152,012,776	161,585,498

Total deficit for the period = 55,657,697 guilders = (at 1*s.* 6*d.* per guilder) £4,174,327.

In sterling the revenue and the expenditure for 1906 are (at 1*s.* 6*d.* per guilder) £11,400,953 and £12,118,912 respectively.

B. Revenue

The following table shows the nature of the revenue for a recent year:—

Sources.	Amount in Guilders. In Holland.	Amount in Guilders. In the Indies.
Sale of Government Coffee	4,747,448	5,134,500
,, ,, Cinchona	285,120	403,000
,, ,, Tin	21,666,697	716,000
Opium Receipts	—	18,141,000
Salt Receipts	—	11,701,500
Customs	—	18,098,000
Land Revenue	—	20,846,000
Railways	233,000	14,400,000
Posts and Telegraphs	—	2,361,800
Various	1,443,050	33,936,825
Total	28,375,315	125,738,625
	154,113,940	

C. Expenditure

The distribution of the expenditure in a recent year between the home-country and the Indies was as follows:—

Expenditure in Holland	34,657,860 guilders.
,, ,, the Indies	132,516,930 ,,
Total	167,174,790 ,,

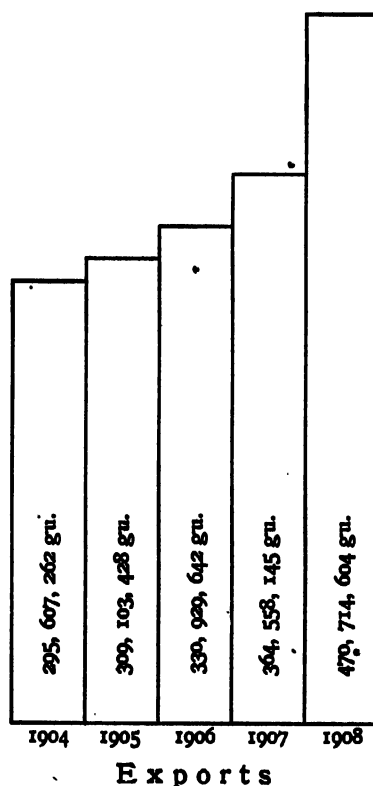
The expenditure is incurred to the extent of about one-fourth for the army and navy, and of one-fourth for general administration.

Weights and Measures

The legal weights and measures are those of the Netherlands, but some older ones are still in ordinary use. We need only mention the *picul* of 100 *catties*, equal to 135.63 lbs. avoirdupois.

Commerce

A. The Course of Trade

The following diagrams show the variation in the value (in guilders) of imports and exports during 1904–1908:—

Imports

Exports

At 1*s*. 6*d*. per guilder the total values for 1904 are £15,588,655 for imports and £22,170,544 for exports.

B. Imports

The principal imports into Java and Madura are: Cotton goods, woollen goods, yarns, provisions, manures, haberdashery, earthenware, iron and steel, ironwork, soap, petroleum, flour, butter, spirits, mineral waters, matches, coal.

The following diagram shows the sources of some of the principal imports into Java and Madura:—

Import	Sources			
Cotton Goods	Holland	United Kingdom	Others	
Cotton Yarns	Via Singapore	Holland	United Kingdom	
Woollen Goods	Holland	United Kingdom	Other Countries	
Manures	United Kingdom	Holland	Australia	Others
Soap	Holland	United Kingdom	Others	
Flour	China	Via Singapore	Australia	
Coal	Japan	United Kingdom	Australia	
Matches	China & Japan	Europe		

Sources of the Principal Imports into Java and Madura

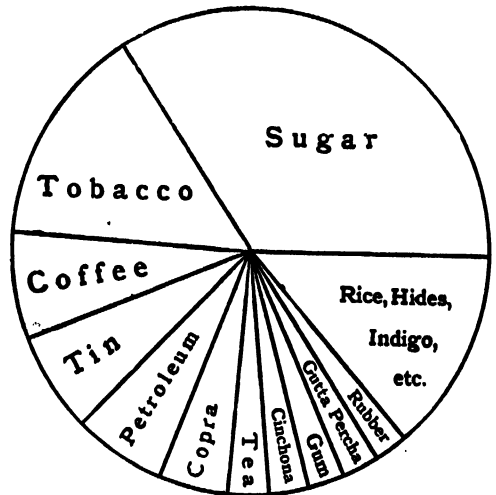
The following diagram shows the nature of the imports from the United Kingdom into Java in a recent year. The total value in 1906 was £2,923,916.

Cotton Goods	Manure	Iron	Other Goods

Principal Imports into Java from the United Kingdom

Java, which is usually associated with the neighbouring island of Madura, is the most important part of the Dutch East Indies, and one of the most valuable of all tropical lands. Its trade and other statistics are not clearly separated from those of the other islands of the archipelago, and accordingly figures are sometimes available for Java alone, and at other times only for the whole of the Dutch East Indian possessions. The official grouping of the Dutch East Indian islands is most perplexing and unsatisfactory, as may be seen at once from the general table of area and population, and something of the same disorder is apparent in British Borneo.

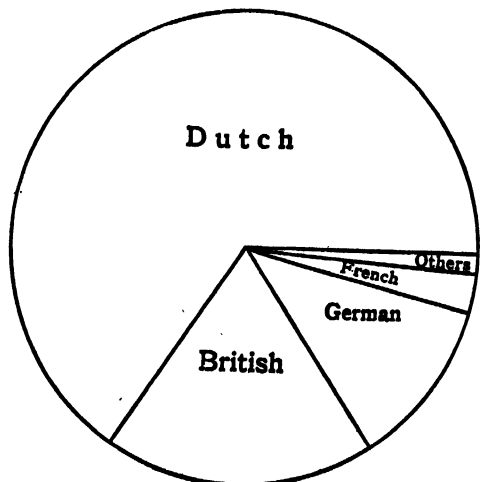
C. Exports

The following circle diagram shows the principal exports of the Dutch East Indies in a recent year:—

The chief purchasers of Javanese sugar are, in order, the United States, China, Japan, Australia, British India, and Britain.

Shipping and Ports

In a recent year the total number of vessels entered at all the ports of the Dutch East Indies was 4182, with a tonnage of 2,718,730. Of these, 4089, with a tonnage of 2,673,054, were steamers.

The tonnage entered at the port of Batavia in a recent year was 1,383,440, of which 1,335,982 tons represented steam vessels. At the port of Samarang there entered in the same year a total tonnage of 1,107,508 (steam, 1,067,909); at Surabaya, 1,187,348 (steam, 1,145,566). Chilatjap is a port on the south coast.

The following circle diagram shows the distribution of the tonnage entered at Batavia according to nationality:—

Posts and Telegraphs

The number of letters and other postal packets carried in the Dutch East Indies in a recent year was 23,990,000 in the internal, besides a large number in the external service. The length of telegraph lines is 8406 miles. The total number of telegrams was 640,000 in a recent year. The length of telephone lines is about 12,710 miles, and of wire, about 13,750 miles.

The number of depositors in the savings banks, postal and other, is about 49,000, the amount deposited being over 11,500,000 guilders.

Railways of the Malay Archipelago

Islands.	Length of Railway in Miles.
Java	2460
Sumatra	490
Borneo (British)	120
Total	3070

Only Java, as the table shows, has any considerable length of railway, and even in Java there is plenty of room for expansion in this respect.

BRITISH BORNEO

Currency

A. Money of Account

1 Dollar = 100 Cents.

B. Coins and Notes

The coins of British North Borneo are as in the Straits Settlements (which see), except that there is no quarter-cent bronze coin. There are nickel coins of 1, 2½, and 5 cents. The colony will follow the Straits Settlements in an endeavour to fix the rate of exchange. Only the bronze and nickel coins are issued by the government of the colony. The other coins are those of the Straits Settlements and Hong-Kong.

Government currency notes for 1, 5, 10, and 25 dols., and for 25 and 50 cents, are issued to the total value of 400,000 dols.

In Sarawak and Labuan the standard and current coins are those of the Straits Settlements (in the latter also the British North Borneo special coins). This is practically the case in Brunei also.

Weights and Measures

The weights and measures of British North Borneo, Sarawak, Labuan, and Brunei are as in the Straits Settlements.

Finance

The revenue and the expenditure of *British North Borneo* in a recent year were 993,531 and 901,241 dollars respectively. The revenue is derived from opium, spirits, birds'-nests, court fees, stamp duties, licences, import duties, royalties, land sales, &c. There is no public debt.

The revenue and the expenditure of *Sarawak* were, in a recent year, 1,353,477 and 1,240,523 dollars respectively. The revenue is derived principally from opium, gambling, arrack, and pawn farms, the Malay exemption tax, and from import and export duties.

The revenue and the expenditure of *Labuan* were 46,250 and 63,680 dollars respectively in a recent year. The revenue is obtained chiefly from retail licences and customs on spirits, wines, tobacco, &c. There is no public debt.

Commerce and Shipping

The imports and the exports of *British North Borneo* were valued at 2,836,676 and 4,537,486 dollars respectively in a recent year. Imports include sugar, tobacco, spirits, machinery, rice, animals, and meat. Among the exports are timber, sago, rice, gums, coffee, fruits, spices, gambier, rubber, gutta-percha, camphor, rattans, tapioca, tobacco, bêche-de-mer, and edible birds'-nests. The trade is carried on chiefly through Singapore and Hong-Kong. The shipping entered in a recent year amounted to 126,575 tons, practically all German.

The imports and the exports of *Sarawak* were valued at 5,881,116 and 7,541,101 dollars respectively in a recent year. The imports include rice, treasure, cloth, tobacco, opium, kerosene, oils, sugar, cloth, prawns, ironware, and spirits; and among the exports are pepper, gold and gold ore, sago, rattans, gutta-percha, gambier, timber, and rubber.

The imports and the exports of *Labuan* were valued at 1,836,000 and 1,093,000 dollars respectively in a recent year.

Note.—Labuan was transferred to the Straits Settlements in 1907, and since April, 1908, the Governor of the Straits Settlements has been British Agent for North Borneo and Sarawak.

THE PHILIPPINES

The Chief Islands, with Area and Population

Group	Islands.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
Luzon Group.	Luzon	47,238	3,750,000
	Mindoro and neighbouring islands	3,972	180,000
	Masbate and Ticao	1,330	20,000
	Burias	190	1,800
	Batan and Babuyan Islands	130	10,000
South Group.	Mindanao and neighbouring islands	36,237	300,000
	Basilan Group	500	12,000
	Sulu Islands	1,000	40,000
Visayas.	Samar and neighbouring islands	5,040	220,000
	Panay and neighbouring islands	4,708	750,000
	Negros	4,854	400,000
	Leyte, Bilaran, &c.	3,060	280,000
	Cebu, with neighbouring islands	1,742	520,000
	Bohol, Siquijor, &c.	1,590	250,000
	Romblon Group	510	50,000
Palawan Group.	Palawan and Dumaran	4,690	50,000
	Calamianes and Cuyos	620	20,000
	Balabac	140	1,200
	Total	117,551	6,855,000

The Philippine Islands, after belonging to Spain for centuries, were ceded to the United States in December, 1898, on the conclusion of the Spanish-American war. The Filipinos, who had for some time been in revolt against Spain and had aided the Americans in the war, refused to accept the cession and proclaimed an independent republic. Desultory fighting went on for a considerable time, but ultimately the capture of Aguinaldo, the chief Filipino leader, determined the issue in favour of the United States. The government of the islands is at present in a transition state. The census of 1903 showed a total population of 7,635,426, of whom 6,987,686 are classed as civilized.

Principal Races

Races.	Habitats.	Religions.	Approximate Numbers.
Negritos	Luzon, Panay, Negros, Mindoro, Mindanao	Pagans	20,000
Indonesians	Mindanao	Pagans	—
Malays—			
Visayans	Islands between Luzon and Mindanao chiefly	Christians	2,600,000
Tagalogs	Luzon, Marinduque, Mindoro	do.	1,700,000
Bicols	S. Luzon, Catanduanes, Masbate, &c.	do.	520,000
Ilocanos	N. Luzon	do.	440,000
Pangasinans	———	do.	370,000
Pampangas	———	do.	340,000
Cagayans	———	do.	170,000
Seven Mohammedan Tribes	———	Mohammedans	270,000
Other 33 Tribes	———	Pagans	—
Chinese	———	———	70,000
Spanish	———	———	3,000

Also British, Japanese, Germans, Swiss, French, Portuguese, Belgians, Italians, Americans, &c.

Climate

The following particulars of temperature and rainfall for Manila are based on the results of sixteen years' continuous observations:—Mean annual temperature, 80.2° F.; highest monthly mean (May), 83.3° F.; lowest monthly mean (January), 77° F.; absolute maximum, 100° F.; absolute minimum, 60.3° F.; mean annual rainfall, 75.5 inches. The seasons are as follows:—Cool and dry, Nov.-Feb.; hot and dry, March-June; hot and wet, July-Oct. The wettest months are July, August, September, with seven-twelfths of the total rainfall for the year. The Philippines are within the typhoon area, the average annual number of typhoons at Manila being about sixteen. They reach their maximum in September.

Principal Summits

The * denotes an active volcano, the † one not wholly extinct.

Peaks.	Height in Feet.	Peaks.	Height in Feet.
LUZON—		NEGROS—	
*Mayon	8,980	*Malaspina (Canboon)	4,600
*Bulusan	—	Magasa	—
*Bacon	4,590	LEYTE—	
*Taal	1,050	Sacripante	—
†Cagud	—	Acundining	—
†Maquiling	3,720	SIQUIJOR—	
S. Cristobal	7,654	*Siquijor	—
Majaijay	7,330	CAMIGUIN—	
Banajao	7,315	*Camiguin	10,825
Isarog	6,450	MINDANAO—	
Cana	3,920	*Apo	10,825
Arayat	3,510	*Macaturin	—
BABUYANES—		Dinata	—
*Camiguan	2,415	Calayo	—
*Babuyan	—	Matutun	—
*Diplicia	—	Butulan	—
MINDORO—			
Halcon	8,865		

Principal Rivers

LUZON—

Rio Grande de Cagayan—flowing north to Aparri—navigable.

MINDANAO—

Mindanao (Rio Grande)—flows west—navigable.

Agusan—flowing north—navigable.

Principal Towns

Towns.	Population.
Manila (Luzon; cap.)	220,000
Bauan (Luzon)	40,000
Lipa (Luzon)	38,000
Laoag (Luzon)	35,000
Argao (Cebu)	35,000
Batangas (Luzon)	34,000
Cebu (Cebu)	32,000
Barili (Cebu)	32,000
Carcar (Cebu)	32,000
San Carlos (Luzon)	27,000
Sibonga (Cebu)	26,000
Baybay (Leyte)	23,000
Tabaco (Luzon)	22,000
Janinay (Panay)	21,000
Miagao (Panay)	21,000
Iloilo (Panay)	19,000
Ormoc (Leyte)	16,000
Calbayog (Samar)	16,000

Administration

The head of the executive is the American Governor-General, and the legislative body consists of seven commissioners, of whom four are Americans. There are four executive departments, namely, Interior, Finance and Justice, Commerce and Police, and Public Instruction, of which the American commissioners are secretaries. The islands are subdivided into 39 provinces, each under its own governor. There is a considerable measure of local autonomy.

Productions

I. *Vegetable Products*—

Rice (chiefly Luzon) and sweet-potatoes, the staple foods; maize (Negros, Cebu, Luzon); tobacco (chiefly N. Luzon, Panay, Negros, Bohol, Sulu); sugar (chiefly Panay, Negros, Cebu, Luzon); abaca or Manila hemp (chiefly S. Luzon, Leyte, Samar, Cebu); coffee (Luzon) and cacao (Panay, Samar, Negros, Mindanao, &c.); cocoa-nut (especially Samar) and copra; indigo and dyes obtained from sapan and other woods; pea-nuts; sago-palms and nipa-palms; nutmeg, cinnamon, and pepper; the essential oils of ilang-ilang and other plants; teak, ebony, and other timbers (forests mainly in Mindoro, Palawan, and Mindanao); dammar and other resins; gutta-percha and other gum-resins; strychnine; mangosteen and durian (Mindanao, Sulu) and other fruits.

II. *Animals and Animal Products*—

Water-buffalo (caraboa), humped cattle, goats, sheep, horses, edible birds'-nests, fish, trepang, tortoise-shell, pearl oysters, &c.

III. *Minerals*—

Copper (Luzon, Mindoro, Masbate, Panay, Negros, Mindanao); coal (Cebu, Luzon, Mindoro, Cararay, Batan, Raparapa, Samar, Semirara, Panay, Leyte, Negros, Mindanao); gold (Luzon, Catanduanes, Mindoro, Samar, Sibuyan, Panay, Cebu, Bohol, Panaow, Mindanao); silver (Marinduque, Cebu); iron (Luzon, Panay, Cebu); lead (Luzon, Marinduque, Cebu); platinum (Mindanao); petroleum (Panay, Leyte, Cebu); natural gas (Panay, Cebu); sulphur (Luzon, Biliran, Leyte); marble (Luzon, Romblon); kaolin (Luzon), &c.

IV. *Manufactures*—

Cigars and cigarettes, cotton-mills, ropes, carriages, furniture, bricks, pottery, sugar-refining, piña and other fabrics of native domestic manufacture, gold filigree work, mats, bamboo hats, leather, soap, salt.

Currency

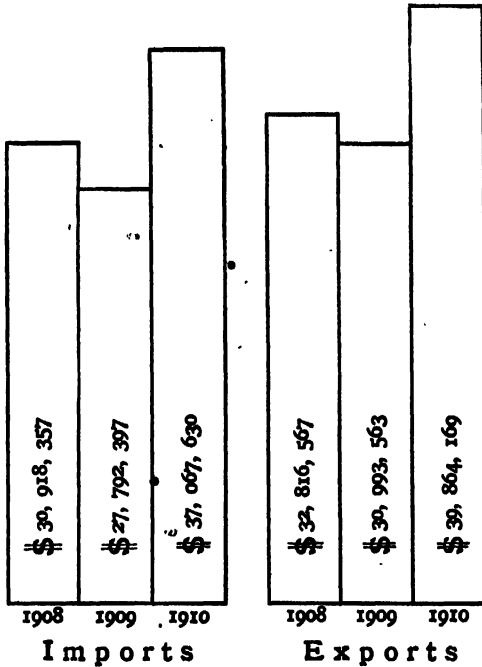
The Mexican dollar, so widely used in the East Indian Archipelago, was the chief coin in use at the time of the American occupation. In 1900 an order was issued making one United States dollar equivalent to two Mexican dollars; but in 1904 an Act came into force making a Filipino dollar of the value of 50 cents, to be guaranteed by gold.

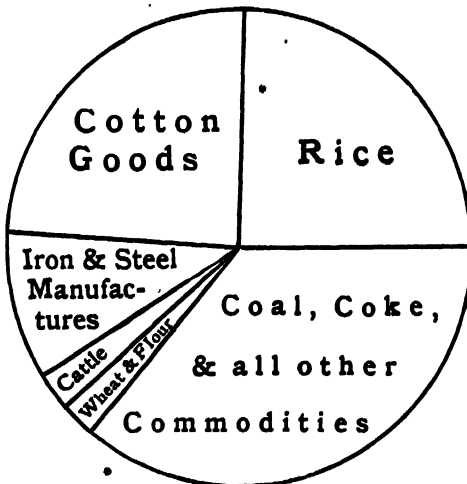
Finance

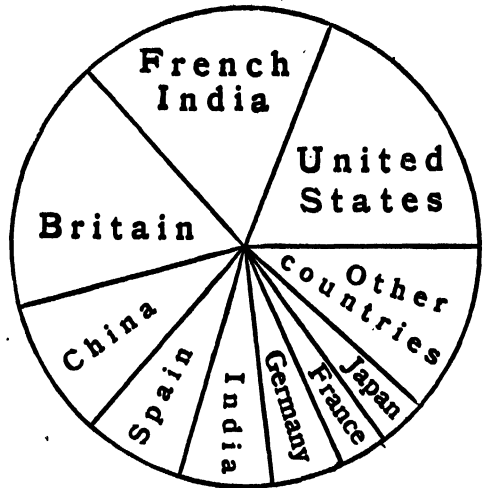
The revenue for a recent year amounted to 16,110,248 dollars, and the expenditure to 17,933,162 dollars. About half the revenue is obtained from customs duties. There is a considerable internal revenue, raised by taxes on banking, insurance, commerce, industries, &c., and there is also a poll tax.

Commerce

A. The Course of Trade

The following diagrams show the value of the imports and exports of the Philippine Islands during 1908–1910:—

B. Imports

The following circle diagram shows the principal commodities imported into the Philippines in a recent year:—

Principal Commodities imported into the Philippines

The following circle diagram shows the principal countries of origin of the imports into the Philippines in a recent year:—

Sources of the Imports into the Philippines

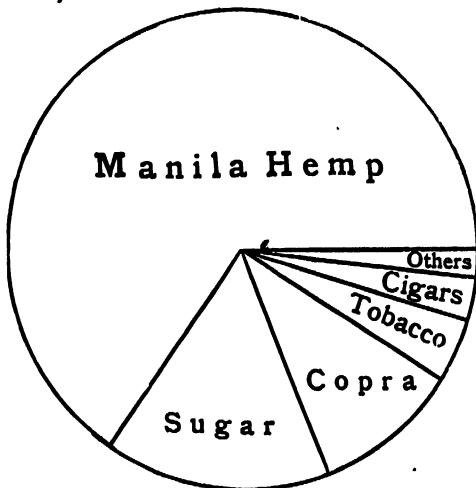
The following diagram shows the countries of origin of the principal articles imported into the Philippine Islands:—

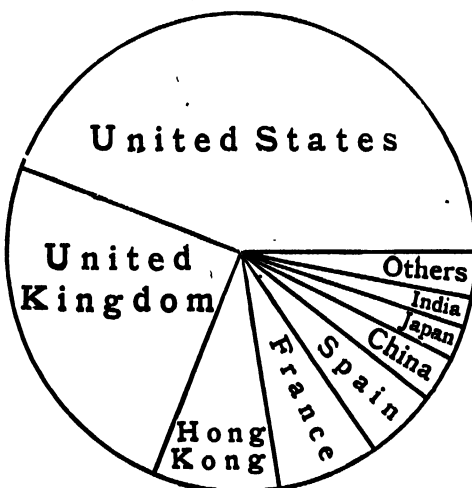
Article	Countries of origin				
Cotton Goods	United Kingdom	Other Countries			
Rice	Cochin-China	China	India	Siam	Other Countries
Iron & Steel	United Kingdom	Other Countries			
Cutlery, Locks, & Sewing Machines	Germany (practically all)				
Electrical Machinery & Typewriters	United States (practically all)				
Paper	Chiefly United States				
Flour	United States	Others			
Lumber	Chiefly United States				
Glass	United States	Other Countries			
Coal	Australia	Japan			
Petroleum	Russia & United States				
Cattle	Chiefly Hong-Kong & Straits Settlements				
Matches	Japan	Others			

The following diagram shows the principal imports from the United Kingdom into the Philippine Islands and Guam, according to Board of Trade returns. The total value in 1906 was £1,513,642.

Imports from the United Kingdom into the Philippine Islands and Guam

C. Exports

The following diagram shows the principal commodities exported from the Philippine Islands in a recent year:—

Principal Exports of the Philippines

The following diagram shows the principal countries of destination of the exports from the Philippine Islands in a recent year:—

Destinations of the Exports from the Philippines

The following diagram shows the chief countries to which the principal exports of the Philippines are consigned:—

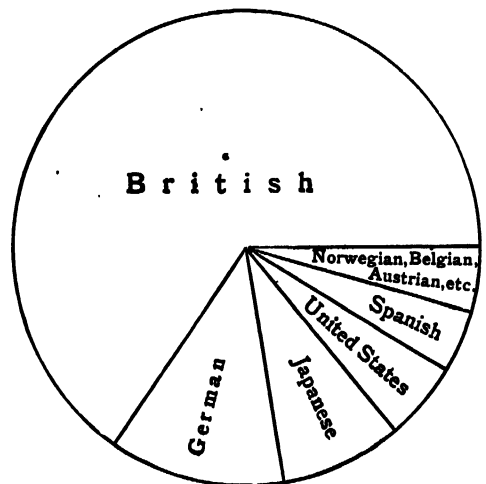
Commodity	Destinations					
Manila Hemp	United Kingdom	United States	Others			
Sugar	Hong-Kong	Japan	China	United States	Others	
Cigars	United Kingdom	Hong-Kong	Australia	India	China	Other Countries
Leaf Tobacco	Spain	Austria	India U.K. etc.			
Panama Hats	Chiefly United States					
Ilang-ilang oil	Chiefly France					

Destinations of Chief Commodities exported from Philippines

The following diagram shows the principal imports from the Philippine Islands and Guam into the United Kingdom, according to Board of Trade returns. The total value was £1,658,369.

Imports from Philippines and Guam into United Kingdom

Shipping and Ports

The following circle diagram shows the distribution of the tonnage entered at the chief Philippine ports according to nationality:—

Distribution among Chief Flags of Tonnage entered at Philippine Ports

Railways and Telegraphs

The only railway as yet constructed is that from Manila to Dagupan (122 miles). There are 720 miles of telegraphs.

AFGHANISTAN

Area and Population

Area, 240,900 sq. miles; population, 5,000,000.

Population according to Race and Religion

Religions.	Races.		Approximate Numbers.
Fire-worshippers	Wakhis (N. slopes Hindu Kush)	Galcha	3,000
Pagans	Siah-Posh Kafirs (S. slopes Hindu Kush)	Galcha	250,000
Mohammedans	Safis and Chagnans (S. slopes Hindu Kush)	Galcha	100,000
	Kohistanis (N. of Kabul)	Galcha	
	Badakhshis (N. slopes Hindu Kush)	Galcha	160,000
	Afghans (many tribes, including Durani, Ghilzai, Waziris, Afridis, Mohmands, &c.)	Iranian	2,000,000
	Tajiks (Herat and towns)	Iranian	1,000,000
	Sistanis (Lower Helmand)	Iranian	25,000
	Hindkis (towns)	Indian	500,000
	Hazarahs (N. Highlands), Aimaks (N. Highlands)	Mongol	600,000
	Usbegs (Afghan Turkestan)	Tatar	300,000
	Turkomans (Herat, Andkhui, &c.)	Tatar	50,000
	Kizil-Bashis (chiefly Kabul)	Tatar	75,000

Principal Towns

Towns.	Population.
Kabul (cap.)	75,000
Kandahar	60,000
Herat	50,000
Mazar-i-Sherif	25,000
Andkhui	15,000

Principal Mountains

	Ranges.	Highest Summits.	Height in Feet.
Northern Group	Hindu Kush	Tirach Mir	25,350
	Koh-i-Baba	—	16,860
	Safed-Koh	—	—
	Paropamisus	—	—
	Bend-i-Turkestan	—	—
	Safed-Koh (East)	Sikaram	15,620
	Khoja Amran (South)	—	—

Principal Rivers

Rivers.		Length in Miles.	Places on or near the Banks.
BELONGING TO THE INDUS BASIN—			
Kabul		250	Kabul, Jelalabad.
Logar (right)		—	—
Alingar (Kao)	Left	—	—
Kunar (Chitral)	Left	300	Chitral (British).
Panjkora, with Swat (in British India)	Left	—	—
Kuram (mostly in N.W.F. Province)		—	Edwardesabad (British).
Tochi (right)		—	—
Gumal		—	—
Sharan	Right	—	—
Zhob (Baluchistan)	Right	—	—
FLOWING TO THE ARAL SEA—			
Amu Daria (Oxus)		1380	—
Kokcha	Left	—	—
Kunduz	Left	—	—
FLOWING TO TRANSCASPIAN DESERT—			
Murghab		400	—
Heri-rud		650	Herat.
FLOWING TO THE SISTAN LAKE—			
Helmand		640	Kandahar, Girishk.
Khash-rud		—	—
Farah-rud		—	—
Harud		—	—

Principal Productions

I. *Vegetable Products*—
Wheat, maize, millet, rice, lentils, chick-peas, peas, beans, cotton, sugar, tobacco, vine, melon, numerous fine fruits (apples, pears, pomegranates, peaches, apricots, plums, &c.), asafœtida, castor-oil plant, madder, &c.

II. *Animals*—
Dromedary, horse, ass, sheep, goats.

III. *Minerals*—
Coal, copper, lead, iron, gold, precious stones.

IV. *Manufactures*—
Silks, felts, carpets, articles from camels' and goats' hair, rosaries, sheepskin *postins*, &c.

Currency

The money of account is the same as in India. The Kabul rupee is valued at only about four-fifths that of India. There are silver coins representing the rupee, the half-rupee (*kran*), and the quarter-rupee, and others are to be struck, of the value of the British crown and half-crown. Pice are coined in bronze, and a large bronze coin, valued at about 5*d.*, is to be issued. It is intended to coin gold pieces equal to the sovereign in value. The currency of Baluchistan is practically the same as that of Afghanistan.

Trade

	Imports.	Exports.
Kabul-India trade	£200,000	£125,000
Kandahar-India trade	145,000	235,000
Bokhara trade	400,000	400,000
Total	£745,000	£760,000

Weights and Measures

The weights and measures of Afghanistan and Baluchistan are largely those of British India.

Principal Imports and Exports in the Indian Trade

Imports.	*Exports.*
Cotton goods.	Fruits and vegetables.
Indigo and other dyes.	Asafœtida and other drugs.
Sugar.	Ghi and other provisions.
Tea.	Pulse and grain.
	Horses.
	Spices.
	Wool.
	Silk.
	Cattle.
	Hides.
	Tobacco.

Principal Trade Routes

I. From Persia—
Meshed to Herat (200 miles).

II. From Bokhara—
Through Merv to Herat (500 miles).
Through Balkh and Khulm to Kabul (460 miles)

III. From Chinese Turkestan—
Through Chitral to Jelalabad.
By the Khawak Pass in the Hindu Kush.

IV. From India—
Peshawar by Khaibar Pass to Kabul (165 miles).
Dera Ismail Khan by Gomal Pass to Ghazni (250 miles).
Sukkur by Bolan Pass and Sind-Pishin Railway to Kandahar (405 miles).

PERSIA

Area and Population

Provinces.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
Azairbijan	35,000	1,700,000
Ghilan (with Talish)	6,000	480,000
Mazanderan	8,000	300,000
Astrabad	10,000	180,000
Irak-Ajemi	115,000	1,700,000
Ardelan (Kurdistan)	6,000	300,000
Khuzistan	30,000	720,000
Luristan	30,000	360,000
Farsistan	60,000	1,460,000
Laristan	20,000	100,000
Kerman (including Kohistan, Mekran, Sistan)	150,000	800,000
Khorassan	140,000	1,200,000
Total	610,000	9,300,000

Population according to Race

Races.	Numbers.
Iranian—	
Persians (Tajiks and Tats)	6,000,000
Kurds (Kurdistan, Azairbijan, Khorassan)	500,000
Luri (Luristan, &c.)	650,000
Laks (Farsistan, Irak-Ajemi, Mazanderan)	100,000
Baluchis (Kerman, Sistan, &c.)	100,000
Tatars—	
Turki Iliats (Irak-Ajemi, Khorassan, &c.)	500,000
Turkomans (Mazanderan, Astrabad)	100,000
Mongols—	
Taemuri Aymaks (Khorassan)	250,000
Hazaras (Afghanistan frontier)	50,000
Others—	
Arabs (Khuzistan, Farsistan, Laristan, &c)	400,000
Armenians (Ispahan, Teheran, Urmia)	50,000
Chaldeans (Urmia)	30,000
Jews (the chief towns)	36,000
Kizil-Bashis (Khorassan, Kerman)	15,000
Guebres (chiefly Yezd)	9,000
Gypsies and Jats (Kerman, Irak-Ajemi, &c.)	20,000

Population according to Religion

Religions.		Numbers.
Mohammedans	Shiah	8,000,000
	Sunni (chiefly Kurds) ...	900,000
Christians ...	Armenian	50,000
	Nestorian	20,000
	Greek Orthodox	—
	Roman Catholic	4,000
	Protestant	7,000
Jews		36,000
Zoroastrians (Guebres)		9,000

Principal Towns

Towns.	Population.
Teheran (cap. Persia and Irak-Ajemi) ...	250,000
Tabriz (cap. Azairbijan)	180,000
Ispahan (Irak-Ajemi)	100,000
Meshed (cap. Khorassan)	80,000
Yezd (Irak-Ajemi)	80,000
Kerman (cap. Kerman)	60,000
Barfrush (Mazanderan)	60,000
Resht (cap. Ghilan)	50,000
Kazvin (Irak-Ajemi)	40,000
Kermanshah (cap. Ardelan)	40,000
Urmia (Azairbijan)	40,000
Hamadan (Irak-Ajemi)	30,000
Shiraz (cap. Farsistan)	30,000
Kum (Irak-Ajemi)	30,000
Kashan (Irak-Ajemi)	30,000
Dizful (cap. Khuzistan)	25,000
Astrabad (cap. Astrabad)	25,000
Bushire (Farsistan)	20,000
Burujird (Irak-Ajemi)	20,000
Semnan (Irak-Ajemi)	20,000
Sebzewar (Khorassan)	20,000
Ardebil (Azairbijan)	16,000
Sari (cap. Mazanderan)	15,000
Shuster (Khuzistan)	15,000
Lingah (Laristan)	15,000
Maragha (Azairbijan)	15,000
Nishapur (Khorassan)	12,000
Amol (Mazanderan)	10,000
Lar (cap. Laristan)	7,000
Bunder Abbas (Kerman)	7,000

Climate

The following table gives the mean annual rainfall at several Persian stations:—

Stations.	Lat. (N.)	Height (in Feet) above or below sea-level.[1]	Rainfall (in inches).
Urmia ...	37°28′	6225	21.5
Resht ...	37°17′	−50	56.5
Astrabad	36°51′	−40	16.3
Meshed[2]	36°17′	3180	6.4
Teheran	35°41′	3810	10.7
Ispahan[2]	32°37′	5370	3.2
Bushire	28°59′	—	13.4
Jask ...	25°39′	—	3.2

[1] The minus sign denotes depression below sea-level.
[2] The figures for Meshed and Ispahan denote rainfall only, and do not include the fairly considerable snowfall.

In Teheran the wetter half of the year is from November to April. January and March have each an average of 2 inches or over, the other four of these months ranging from 1.1 to 1.7 inches. The remaining six months (May–October) have just over one inch altogether.

Principal Mountains

Ranges or Groups.	Highest Summits.	Height in Feet.
Elburz Range ...	Demavend (extinct volcano)	19,400
	Savalan (extinct volcano)	15,792
Central Range ...	Kuh-i-Hazar	14,700
	Kuh-i-Jupar	13,000
Western Highlands	Kuh-i-Dina	14,000
	Sahand	11,800
South-eastern Group	Kuh-i-Taftan (active volcano)	12,680
	Kuh-i-Basman (dormant volcano)	12,000
North-eastern Group (continuation of Caucasus)		12,000

Principal Rivers

Rivers.	Length in Miles.
FLOWING TO PERSIAN GULF—	
Shat-el-Arab (Euphrates-Tigris; frontier)...	100
Kerkhah	350
Karun	450
Dizful (Ab-i-diz)	—
Jerahi	200
Tab	150
Minab (Strait of Ormuz)	—
FLOWING TO THE CASPIAN SEA—	
Aras (Araxes; frontier)	640
Kizil-Uzen (Sefid-rud)	450
Herhaz (Lar)	120
Gurgan	—
Atrek (frontier)	250
FLOWING TO LAKE URMIA—	
Aji-chai	—
Jaghatu	—
FLOWING TO OTHER LAKES OR DRYING UP IN INTERIOR—	
Kara-su (Hamadan)	—
Zendeh-rud (Ispahan)	—
Kur (Bandamir)	—
Shurab	—
Keshef-rud (tributary of Heri-rud)	—

The Karun and Shat-el-Arab are the only navigable rivers.

Drainage Basins

	Area in Sq. Miles.
Indian Ocean	130,000
Aral and Caspian	100,000
Sistan Depression	40,000
Lake Urmia	20,000
Kavirs and other inland Depressions ...	320,000
Total	610,000

Principal Lakes

Urmia (Urumiyah); 1600 sq. miles.
Niris (Bakhtegan).
Gavkhani: a swamp.
Hausi Sultan.
Huslu Gol.

Principal Productions

I. *Vegetable Products*—
Wheat, barley, rice, peas, beans, lentils, grain, maize, millet, fruits (especially quinces, peaches, apricots, plums, raisins, almonds, figs, pistachios, dates, walnuts, oranges), vine, cotton, hemp, tobacco, opium poppy, castor-oil, sesamum, linseed, olive, potatoes, tomatoes, cauliflower and similar vegetables, timber, gums, dyes, drugs, &c.

II. *Animals and Animal Products*—
Horses, mules, donkeys; fish; silk-worms.

III. *Minerals*—
Coal (N. of Teheran), iron (Ghilan and Mazanderan), copper (Khorassan, Azairbijan, Kerman, &c.), lead (Khorassan, near Semnan, near Zenjan, Kerman), cobalt (near Kashan), arsenic (Urmia, Afshar), turquoise (Nishapur), gold, manganese, zinc, nickel, antimony, rock-salt, gypsum, lime, marble, alabaster, soapstone, naphtha (in the west), &c.

IV. *Manufactures*—
Carpets (Ferahan, Sultanabad, Khorassan, Yezd, Kerman, Shuster, Kurdistan), shawls (Kerman, Meshed), woollen goods, cotton fabrics, silk stuffs (Khorassan, Kashan, Yezd), rose-water (Kashan, Maimand)—all native industries.

Currency

A. Money of Account

1 Toman = 10 Krans.
1 Kran = 20 Shahis.
1 Shahi = 50 Dinars.

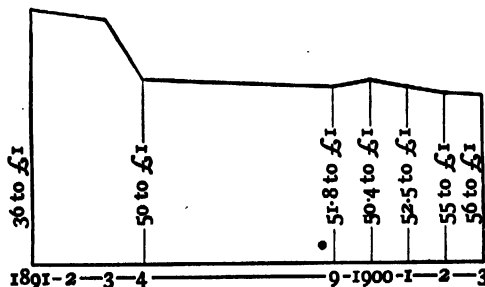
These relations are not, as will be seen immediately, maintained between the coins representing the toman, kran, and shahi.

B. Coins and Notes

Coins.	Fineness (Supposed).	£	s.	d.
Gold—				
10 Tomans	.9	3	6	0
5 Tomans	.9	1	13	0
2 Tomans	.9	0	13	2.4
1 Toman	.9	0	6	7.2
½ Toman	.9	0	3	3.6
¼ Toman	.9	0	1	7.8
Silver—				
5 Krans	.895	0	1	9.43
2 Krans	.895	0	0	8.57
1 Kran	.895	0	0	4.285
10 Shahis	.895	0	0	2.14
5 Shahis	.895	0	0	1.07
Nickel—				
2 Shahis	—	0	0	0.43
1 Shahi	—	0	0	0.21
Copper—				
Abbassi (4 Shahis)	—	0	0	0.86
2 Shahis	—	0	0	0.43
1 Shahi	—	0	0	0.21
1 Pul (½ Shahi)	—	0	0	0.10

The copper coinage became greatly depreciated, 80 or more copper shahis being given for a silver kran, and in 1900 it was withdrawn and replaced by the above nickel coins.

Very few gold coins are in circulation, and the toman is now worth about 16.5 silver krans. The former pure gold toman was worth about 9*s.* 4¼*d.*, but the addition of alloy metals and the reduction of its weight have reduced its sterling value.

The silver kran formerly weighed 88 grains and was of fineness .95, but it now weighs only 71 grains and is of fineness .895. In 1874 it was equal to 1 franc (25 to the pound sterling), but in 1906 the exchange was 56 to the pound. The variation in its value during 1891–1903 is shown by the following graph:—

Variation in Value of Silver Kran during 1891–1903

Several Russian, Turkish, and Austrian coins also circulate in Persia.

The Imperial Bank of Persia, founded in 1889, has the exclusive right of issuing bank notes. The notes are payable in silver krans, and the coin reserve is 33 per cent of their total value.

Weights and Measures

A. Linear Measure

1 Zar or Gez = 16 Gerehs.
1 Gereh = 2 Sirre.

The *zar* or *gez* is of different lengths in different parts of the country, varying from 25 to 44 inches. A common length is 40.95 inches. Distances are measured in farsakhs, a *farsakh* being equal to 6000 zar. Taking the zar at 40.95 inches, the farsakh is equal to 3.8778 miles.

B. Surface Measure

1 Jerib = 1000 square zar.

With the zar at 40.95 inches the *jerib* = 1294 sq. yards.

C. Cubic Measure

The *artaba* of 8 *collothun* is used in measuring dry goods, and is equal to 1.809 bushels. Liquids are usually sold by weight.

D. WEIGHT

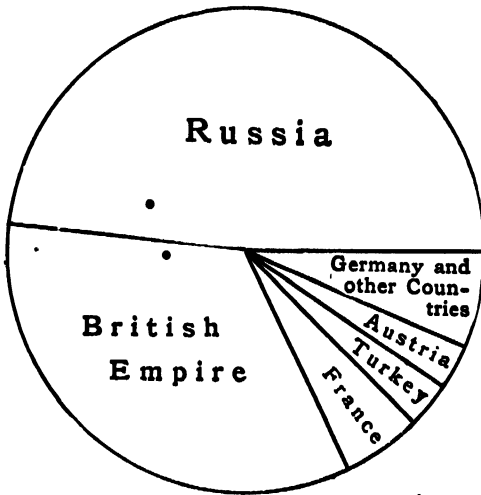
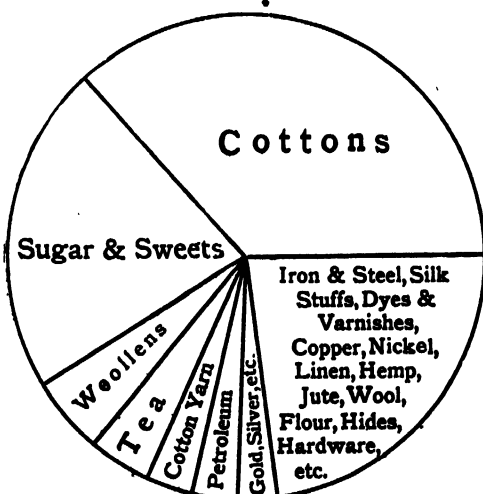
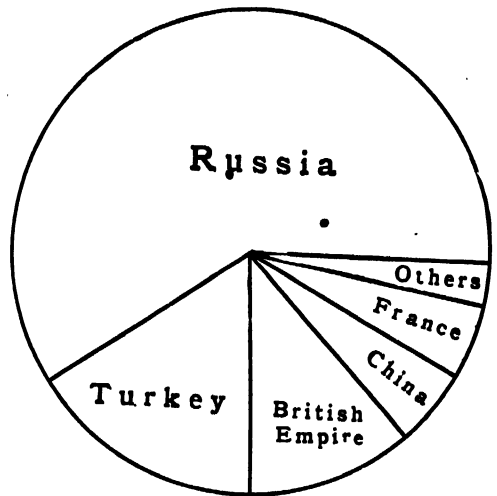
1 Kharwar = 100 Batmans (or Mans).
1 Batman = 8 Abbassi.
1 Abbassi = 5 Seers.
1 Seer = 16 Miskhals.
1 Miskhal = 24 Nakhods.
1 Nakhod = 4 Gandums.

The *miskhal* and its subdivisions are used in weighing gold and silver. A miskhal is equal to 71 grains.

The ordinary commercial weight is the *batman* or *man*. It has widely different values in different parts of the country. The batman of Tabriz and Meshed is equal to 6.49 lbs. avoirdupois. The *kharwar* is used in weighing corn, straw, coal, and similar substances.

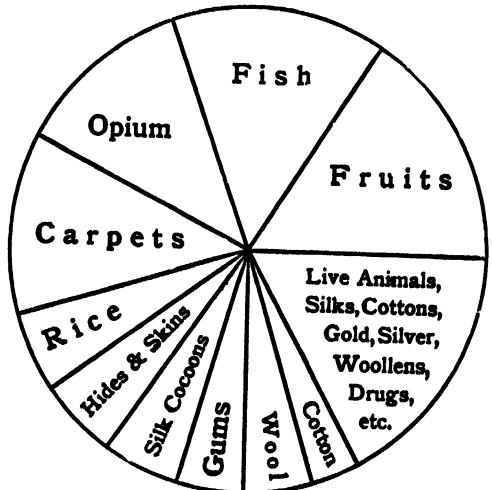
Pearls are weighed by the *abas*, of 2¼ grains, and precious stones by the *keerat*, of 5 grains.

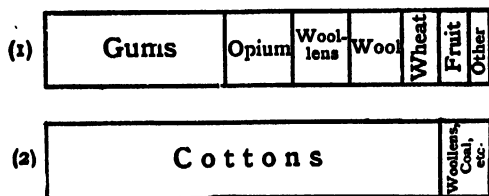
Commerce

The following circle diagram shows the chief countries of origin of the imports into Persia. The total value of imports for a recent year was 349,914,613 krans (= about £5,831,910).

Principal Countries of Origin of Imports into Persia

The following circle diagram shows the principal countries of destination of the exports from Persia. The total value of exports for a recent year was 247,961,340 krans (= about £4,132,689).

Principal Countries of Destination of Exports from Persia

The following circle diagram shows the principal commodities imported into Persia:—

Principal Commodities imported into Persia

The following circle diagram shows the principal commodities exported from Persia:—

Principal Commodities exported from Persia

The following diagrams show, according to the Board of Trade returns, (1) the principal imports of the United Kingdom from Persia, (2) the principal exports of the United Kingdom to Persia. The total values in 1906 were respectively £226,673 and £478,602.

Persia's Exports to, and Imports from, the United Kingdom

Principal Trade Centres and Routes

NORTHERN FRONTIER—

(1) *Transcaucasian Frontier:*
Julfa and Astara (Caspian port), both Russian.

(2) *Caspian Shore:*
Enzeli (Resht), Meshed-i-Sar (Barfrush), and Bender-i-Gez (Astrabad), all Caspian ports.

(3) *Transcaspian Frontier:*
Roads: Kushan — Askabad and Meshed — Serrekhs—Turkestan.

WESTERN FRONTIER—
Trade with Trebizond. Kermanshah — Bagdad and other routes.

SOUTHERN FRONTIER—
The Gulf ports, especially Mohammerah, Bushire, Lingah, and Bunder Abbas.

EASTERN FRONTIER—
Meshed — Herat. Meshed — Sistan — Nushki — Quetta.

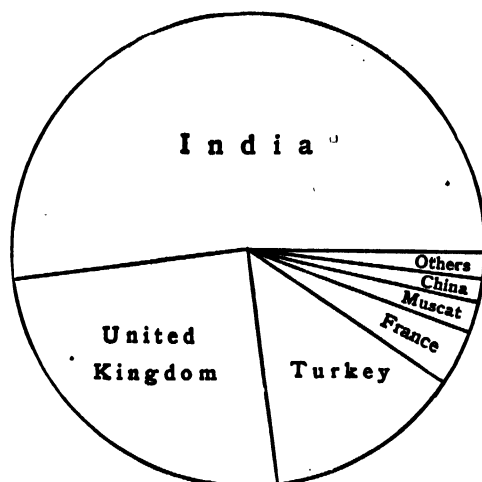
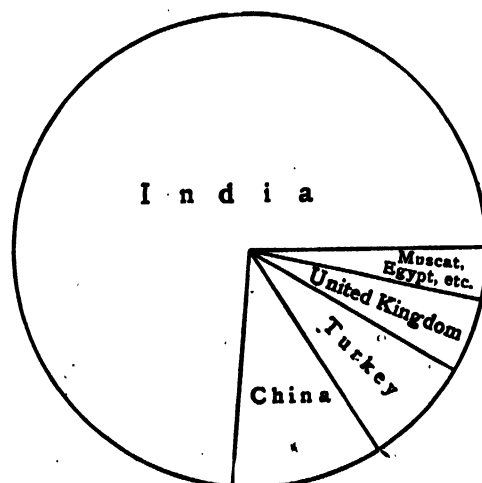
Trade of the Persian Gulf Ports

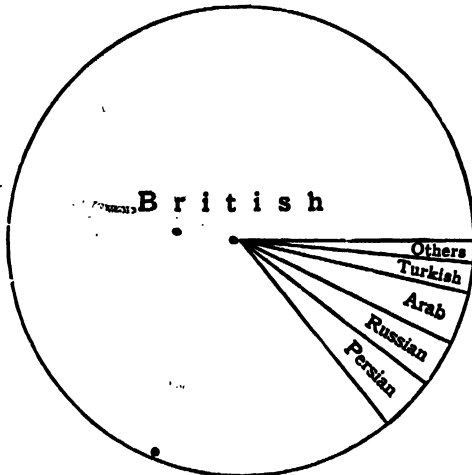
Ports.	Imports.	Exports.
Bushire	£949,000	£430,000
Lingah	684,000	653,000
Arab Coast Ports	303,000	651,000
Bunder Abbas	449,000	138,000
Bahrein	1,027,000	865,000
Mohammerah	168,000	72,000

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

(The inter-port trade is included.)

Imports.	*Exports.*
Cotton piece-goods.	Pearls.
Pearls.	Opium.
Grain and Pulse.	Fruits and Vegetables.
Tea.	Grain and Pulse.
Sugar.	Gum.
Yarn and twist.	Woollen goods.
Provisions and oilmen's stores.	Cotton piece-goods and raw cotton.
Silk goods.	Tobacco.
Metals.	Provisions.
Coffee.	Mother-of-pearl.
Dates.	Hides and Skins.
Indigo.	Wool.
Woollen goods.	Dates.
Spices.	Coffee.
Hardware and Cutlery.	Drugs and Medicines.
Oils.	Raw silk and silk goods.
Fuel.	Spices.
Drugs and Medicines.	
Glass and Glassware.	
Timber.	
Mother-of-pearl.	
Porcelain.	
Matches.	
Tobacco.	

The following diagram shows the principal countries of origin of the imports at the Persian Gulf Ports:—

The following diagram shows the chief countries of destination of the exports from the Persian Gulf Ports:—

Shipping

The following diagram shows the trade of the Persian Gulf Ports according to the nationality of the vessels engaged in it. The total tonnage entered annually is about 860,000.

Nationality of Tonnage entered at Persian Gulf Ports

Posts and Telegraphs

Persia has 6312 miles of telegraph line with about 10,395 miles of wire. Two lines—the Bushire–Teheran and the new Kashin-Yezd-Kerman-Bam-Bampur lines —are worked by the British Government as part of the telegraph system connecting Britain with India. These are three-wire lines, as is also that of the Indo-European Telegraph Company, Ltd., between Teheran and Julfa. The Persian Government owns and works the rest, about 4200 miles of single-wire lines. The number of messages over the three-wire lines was over 216,000 in a recent year.

The first postal service in Persia was opened in 1877. The Persian posts were held in farm till 1901, and since 1902 they have been worked by the Belgian officials of the Customs Department. There are no postal statistics.

Roads and Railways

ROADS—

Resht—Kazvin—Teheran: 227 miles.
Teheran—Kum—Sultanabad: 160 miles.
Meshed—Kushan—Askabad: 150 miles (30 Russian).
Ispahan—Ahwaz: 280 miles.

RAILWAY—

Teheran—Shah-abdul-azim and branches: 8 miles.

CAUCASIA

Area and Population

	Divisions.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population, 1897.
Cis-Caucasia	Kuban (Prov.)	36,430	1,922,773
	Stavropol (Govt.)	23,390	876,298
	Terek (Prov.)	26,810	933,485
Trans-Caucasia	Black Sea Govt.	2,840	57,478
	Kutais (Govt.)	14,080	1,075,861
	Tiflis (Govt.)	17,220	1,040,943
	Elizabethpol (Govt.)	17,040	871,557
	Daghestan (Prov.)	11,490	586,636
	Baku (Govt.)	15,170	789,659
	Kars (Prov.)	7,200	290,654
	Erivan (Govt.)	10,740	804,757
	Total	182,410	9,250,101

Population according to Race

Races.	Numbers.
INDO-EUROPEANS—	
Slavs: Russians	3,000,000
Slavs: Poles	20,000
Iranians	500,000
Armenians	300,000
Greeks	60,000
Germans	40,000
SEMITES—	
Jews	50,000
Chaldeans	3,000
CAUCASIANS—	
1. Kartvelians (Iberes)—	
(a) Georgians:	
Georgians proper	400,000
Imeretians	450,000
Gurians	80,000
Ajars, Enghilois	70,000
Tushins, Pshaves, &c.	25,000
(b) Mingrelians	220,000
(c) Lazes	2,000
(d) Svanetians	15,000
2. Western Mountaineers:	
(a) Abhazes	65,000
*(b) Kabardians, &c.	190,000
3. Eastern Mountaineers:	
*(a) Chechens	290,000
(b) Leghians:	
Avars and Andians	200,000
Dargo	125,000
Kyurin	175,000
Others	110,000

Races.	Numbers.
Turko-Tatars—	
Azairbijan Tatars	1,200,000
Turks	75,000
Turkomans	30,000
Kumyks	100,000
Karapapakhs	25,000
*Nogais	50,000
Mongols—	
*Kalmucks	10,000
Finnish—	
Esthonians and Mordovians	2,000

The asterisk denotes races mainly Cis-Caucasian. The others are mainly or entirely Trans-Caucasian.

Population according to Religion

Religions.		Numbers.
Christians	Orthodox Greek (most Russians and Georgians; Greeks); Dissenting Greek (many Russians); Roman Catholic (some Armenians); Gregorian (most Armenians); Lutheran (Germans)	5,000,000
Mohammedans	Sunni (Caucasian mountaineers, Lazes, Turko-Tatars, Kurds); Shiah (Persians)	3,000,000
Jews		50,000
Buddhists (Kalmucks)		10,000

Principal Towns

Towns.	Population, 1897.
Tiflis (cap. Tiflis and Caucasia)	160,645
Baku (cap. Baku)	112,253
Ekaterinodar (cap. Kuban)	65,697
Vladikavkaz (cap. Terek)	43,843
Stavropol (cap. Stavropol)	41,621
Yeisk (Kuban)	35,446
Maikop (Kuban)	34,191
Elizabethpol (cap. Elizabethpol)	33,090
Kutais (cap. Kutais)	32,492
Alexandropol (Erivan)	32,018
Nakhichevan (Erivan)	29,312
Erivan (cap. Erivan)	29,033
Batum (Kutais)	28,512
Shusha (Elizabethpol)	26,656
Nukha (Elizabethpol)	24,811
Kars (cap. Kars)	20,891
Shemakha (Baku)	20,008
Piatigorsk (Terek)	18,638
Novorossisk (cap. Black Sea)	16,208
Temir-khan-Shura (cap. Daghestan)	9,208

Climate

The following table gives particulars of temperature and rainfall for a few stations in Caucasia. Caucasia presents a great diversity of climate within a small area, partly owing to the great differences in its elevation, partly to its situation between two inland seas, south of the Steppes and north-west of the Iranian plateau.

Station (with height above sea-level).	Latitude (N.).	Mean Annual Temp. (° F.).	Mean Jan. Temp. (° F.).	Mean July Temp. (° F.).	Rainfall (in Inches).
Stavropol (1919)	45° 3′	47	24	70	29.8
Piatigorsk (1656)	44° 5′	48	24	72	21.3
Baku (105)	42° 21′	59	39	80	10.4
Erivan (3230)	42° 14′	51	16	75	—
Poti (10)	42° 8′	58	41	74	61.9
Tiflis (1343)	41° 42′	55	32.5	77	18.7
Batum (coast)	41° 40′	59	43	75	89.7
Alexandropol (5100)	40° 50′	41.5	13	71	15
Leukoran (−73)	38° 45′	59	37	78	48.1

Mountains

Ranges.	Highest Summits.	Height in Feet.
Caucasus—		
Western Section	Psysh	12,427
	Shugus	10,642
	Fisht (Oshten)	9,359
Middle Section	Elbruz	18,470
	Dykh-tau	17,054
	Great Shkhara	17,049
	Koshtan-tau	16,881
	Janghi-tau	16,564
	Kazbek	16,546
	Adysh	16,291
Eastern Section	Antsal	11,742
	Shavi-kilde	11,314
	Borbalo	10,807
Daghestan Highlands	Tebulos-mta	14,781
	Kachu	14,027
	Donos-mta	13,736
	Balakuri	—
Extreme East Section	Kichen-dagh (Bazar-dyuz)	14,772
	Shah-dagh	13,951
	Thfan-dagh	13,764
	Baba-dagh	11,934
Suram Mountains	——	—
Akhalzikh ,,	——	—
Anti-Caucasus (Little Caucasus)	Ararat	16,900
	Alaghöz	13,436

Principal Rivers

Rivers.	Length in Miles.
Flowing to Black Sea—	
Kuban	550
Byelaya (Left)	160
Laba (Left)	200
Ingur	—
Rion	200
Chenis-chali (right)	—
Kivirla (left)	—
Chorokh	360
Flowing to Caspian Sea—	
Kuma	400
Terek	390
Ardon (Left)	—
Urukh (Left)	—
Malka (Left)	—
Sunsha (right)	—

Rivers.		Length in Miles.
Sulak	...	190
Kura	...	830
Jora	Left	—
Alazan	Left	—
Aras (Araxes; right)	...	640

FLOWING TO THE MANYTCH—

Yegorlyk (western branch)	240
Kalaus (eastern branch)	230

Principal Productions

I. *Vegetable Products*—

Wheat, maize, rice, and other cereals; cotton (especially Eastern Transcaucasia); tobacco; linseed; vine for wine-making; peach, apricot, cherry, orange, citron, pear, plum, walnut, melon, and other fruits; rye-grass, lucerne, &c.; sunflower (for oil); mulberry (for silk-worm); laurel; liquorice-root; madder and saffron; tea; olive; many kinds of timber.

II. *Animals*—

Horses, donkeys, mules, cattle, sheep, swine, camels, goats; silk-worms.

III. *Minerals*—

Copper (govts. of Tiflis, Elizabethpol, Kutais, Erivan), silver (Terek, Kuban, Kutais), iron (Elizabethpol), manganese (Kutais), cobalt, sulphur, quicksilver, coal (Kuban, Kutais), naphtha (Baku, Terek, Kuban, Tiflis, Daghestan), rock-salt (Erivan, Kars), lake-salt, &c.

IV. *Manufactures*—

Carpets, woollens, burkas (Circassian fur cloaks), small-arms (Daghestan), silver work (Akhalzikh), leather goods, oils, silk, wine, &c.

Principal Ports

ON THE BLACK SEA—

Batum (640,000), Poti (220,000), Novorossisk (692,000), Sukhum.

ON THE CASPIAN SEA—

Baku, Petrovsk.

The figures in parenthesis after some of the above names denote tonnage entered in a recent year.

Principal Imports and Exports

	Imports.	*Exports.*
BLACK SEA PORTS	Tin.	Naphtha.
	Timber.	Manganese.
	Iron and steel.	Linseed.
	Lead.	Silk.
	Chemicals.	Wool.
	Glass.	Liquorice-root.
	China.	Corn.
	Machinery.	Salt.
		Timber.
PERSIAN TRADE	Rice.	Naphtha.
	Carpets.	Cottons.
	Dried Fruits.	Metals.

Railways

CIS-CAUCASIAN LINE—

Rostov-on-Don—Vladikavkaz—Petrovsk (582 miles).

Petrovsk—Derbent—Baku (234 miles).

Branch from Tikhoryetskaya to Novorossisk (168 miles) and north-east to Tsaritsyn (333 miles).

Branches to Piatigorsk and Kislovodsk, to Stavropol, &c.

TRANS-CAUCASIAN LINE—

Batum and Poti—Tiflis—Elizabethpol—Baku (400 miles).

Branch from Tiflis to Alexandropol, Kars, and Erivan (200 miles), and smaller branches.

ASIATIC TURKEY

Area and Population

Divisions.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
ASIA MINOR—		
Constantinople (vilayet; part in Asia)	1,080	241,000
Ismid (mutessarifat)	3,130	223,000
Bigha (mut.)	2,550	130,000
Brussa (Khodavendikiar; vil.)	25,400	1,627,000
Smyrna (Aidin; vil.)	21,580	1,397,000
Archipelago (vil.; part in Asia)	2,350	281,000
Konia (vil.)	39,410	1,069,000
Angora (vil.)	27,370	933,000
Kastamuni (vil.)	19,570	962,000
Trebizond (vil.)	12,510	949,000
Sivas (vil.)	23,970	1,058,000
Adana (vil.)	15,400	423,000
ARMENIA AND KURDISTAN—		
Erzerum (vil.)	19,180	646,000
Mamuret-ul-Aziz (vil.)	12,700	576,000
Diarbekir (vil.)	14,480	472,000
Bitlis (vil.)	10,460	399,000
Van (vil.)	15,170	380,000
SYRIA AND PALESTINE—		
Aleppo (vil.)	33,430	996,000
Zor (mut.)	30,110	100,000
Beirut (vil.)	6,180	534,000
Lebanon (privileged prov.)	1,200	200,000
Syria (Damascus; vil.)	37,020	720,000
Jerusalem (mut.)	6,600	342,000
MESOPOTAMIA—		
Mosul (vil.)	35,130	352,000
Bagdad (vil.)	42,960	614,000
Bassora (vil.)	53,580	433,000
ARABIA—		
Hedjaz (vil.)	96,500	300,000
Assyr (vil.) ... Yemen { Hodeidah (vil.), Sana (vil.), Ta'is (vil.) }	73,760	750,000
OTHER POSSESSIONS—		
Samos (tributary principality)	180	55,000
Cyprus (under British administration)	3,580	238,000
Total	686,540	17,400,000

The Sinaitic peninsula (area, 22,760 sq. miles; pop., 25,000) forms part of Egypt for administrative purposes.

The Turkish Empire, which was regarded by western Europeans till very recently as hopelessly corrupt and doomed to decay, is the most remarkable instance in the world at present of a national revival. By a peaceful revolution, organized in a masterly way by the Young Turkish Party, the despotism of the Sultan has been replaced by an enlightened constitutional system based on respect for the rights and liberties of all races in the Empire.

ARABIA

Area and Population

Divisions.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
INDEPENDENT—		
Central Arabia (Nejd) and Syrian Desert	479,000	500,000
South Arabian Desert	309,000	—
Oman (Muscat)	75,000	1,000,000
Hadramaut (and Mahrah)	92,000	500,000
TURKISH ARABIA—		
Hedjaz (vilayet)	96,500	300,000
Assyr (vil.) ... Yemen { Hodeidah (vil.), Sana (vil.), Ta'is (vil.) }	73,760	750,000
El Hasa (included in vil. Bassora)	31,000	150,000
Sinai Peninsula (included in Egyptian govts. Suez and El Arish)	22,760	25,000
BRITISH ARABIA—		
Aden and territory (under Bombay—including Kuria Muria Islands)	80	44,000
Bahrein Islands (protectorate)	230	68,000
Total	1,179,330	3,337,000

Principal Races and Religions of Asiatic Turkey

Religions.	Races.
Mohammedans (all Sunni practically, except the Meteollis)	Turks (especially western Asia Minor). Arabs (Arabia, Mesopotamia, Syria). Syrians (Syria). Kurds (Kurdistan, Armenia, &c.). Circassians and Abkhasians (Asia Minor). Yuruk Turkomans (Asia Minor, Syria). Lazis (Lazistan, Asia Minor). Meteollis (Syria).
Christians	Greeks (Asia Minor, Syria). Syrians (Syria). Armenians (Armenia, Asia Minor). Maronites (Syria). Chaldeans (Nestorians; Mesopotamia, Kurdistan).
Others	Druses (Syria). Jews (Asia Minor, Syria, &c.). Nusairieh (Syria, Asia Minor). Kizil-Bashis (Asia Minor). Yezids (Asia Minor, Mesopotamia). Ishmaelites (Syria).

Principal Towns

Towns.	Population.
Smyrna (cap. vilayet)	200,000
Damascus (cap. vil. Syria)	200,000
Bagdad (cap. vil.)	180,000
Aleppo (cap. vil.)	127,000
Beirut (cap. vil.)	120,000
Scutari (vil. Constantinople)	90,000
Brussa (cap. vil.)	90,000
Kaisariyeh (vil. Angora)	72,000
Kerbela (vil. Bagdad)	65,000
Mosul (cap. vil.)	61,000
Mecca (cap. vil. Hedjaz)	60,000
Homs (vil. Syria)	60,000
Sana (cap. vil.)	60,000
Jerusalem (cap. mut.)	60,000
Urfa (vil. Aleppo)	55,000
Marash (vil. Aleppo)	52,000
Konia (cap. vil.)	52,000
Adana (cap. vil.)	50,000
Medina (vil. Hedjaz)	48,000
Hama (vil. Syria)	45,000
Hodeida (cap. vil.)	45,000
Trebizond (cap. vil.)	45,000
Aintab (vil. Syria)	44,000
Sivas (cap. vil.)	43,000
Erzerum (cap. vil.)	43,000
El-Hofuf (cap. El-Hasa)	43,000
Manisa (vil. Smyrna)	37,000
Aidin (vil. Smyrna)	37,000
Diarbekir (cap. vil.)	35,000
Angora (cap. vil.)	35,000
Kharput (cap. vil. Mamuret)	35,000
Tripoli (vil. Beirut)	30,000
Amasia (vil. Sivas)	30,000
Hille (vil. Bagdad)	30,000
Kerkuk (vil. Mosul)	30,000
Malatia (vil. Mamuret)	30,000
Van (cap. vil.)	30,000
Aivali (vil. Brussa)	30,000
Tokat (vil. Sivas)	30,000
Mush (vil. Bitlis)	30,000
Mardin (vil. Diarbekir)	27,000
Ismid (cap. mut.)	25,000
Adabasar (mut. Ismid)	25,000
Kutaia (vil. Brussa)	25,000
Adalia (vil. Konia)	25,000
Kastamuni (cap. vil.)	25,000
Bitlis (cap. vil.)	25,000
Nablus (vil. Beirut)	25,000
Jedda (vil. Hedjaz)	25,000
Atakiyeh (vil. Aleppo)	24,000
Ala-Shehr (vil. Smyrna)	23,000
Kassaba (vil. Smyrna)	23,000
Erzingan (vil. Erzerum)	23,000
Nazili (vil. Smyrna)	22,000
Latakia (vil. Beirut)	22,000
Jaffa (mut. Jerusalem)	22,000
Gaza (mut. Jerusalem)	21,000
Eski-Shehr (vil. Brussa)	20,000
Bergama (vil. Smyrna)	20,000
Denizli (vil. Smyrna)	20,000
Kirkagach (vil. Smyrna)	20,000
Tire (vil. Smyrna)	20,000
Isparta (vil. Konia)	20,000
Karahissar-Sharki (vil. Sivas)	20,000
Mersifun (vil. Sivas)	20,000
Zile (vil. Sivas)	20,000
Arabkir (vil. Mamuret)	20,000
Kliss (vil. Aleppo)	20,000
Deir (cap. mut. Zor)	20,000
Bassora (cap. vil.)	20,000
Koweit (vil. Bassora)	20,000

Towns in non-Turkish Arabia:—Aden (British); Muscat (cap. Oman; 60,000); Er-Riad (Wahabi cap.); Hail (cap. of Emir of Jebel Shammar); Moharek (cap. Bahrein Islands; 22,000); Manameh (Bahrein Islands; 25,000); Shibam (cap. Hadramaut); Mokalla (port in Hadramaut; 18,000); Shehr (port in Hadramaut); Kosair (port in Hadramaut).

Climate

The following table gives some particulars of temperature and rainfall for a few stations of Asiatic Turkey, and also for Aden and Muscat:—

Stations.	Latitude (N.)	Mean Annual Temp. (° F.)	Mean Jan. or Feb. Temp. (° F.)	Mean July or Aug. Temp. (° F.)	Rainfall (in inches)
Samsun ...	41° 20′	57.8	43.9	73.4	28.3
Trebizond ...	41°	58.3	41.4	74.8	34.1
Scutari ...	41°	58.6	41.9	76	—
Brussa ...	40° 12′	59.1	39.2	79.7	—
Smyrna ...	38° 25′	63.3	47.4	79.9	25.6
Mosul	36° 25′	68.6	45.2	93.2	12
Beirut	33° 50′	68.3	55.4	80.8	37.8
Damascus ...	33° 30′	64	45.5	80.8	—
Bagdad ...	33° 24′	73.9	49.5	94.8	14.4
Jerusalem ...	31° 46′	63	47.8	75.5	22.2
Muscat ...	23° 34′	80.6	68.6	88.3	6.1
Jedda	21° 40′	79	69.3	86.5	—
Aden	12° 47′	81.2	75.2	84.9	2.5

Principal Mountains

TAURUS—

A. Eastern or Armenian Taurus.

1. Tigris section (in Van, Bitlis, Diarbekir, Mamuret).
2. Mesopotamian section (Diarbekir, Mosul, Zor, Aleppo).
3. Cis-Euphrates section (Mamuret, Aleppo, Adana).

B. Anti-Taurus (Adana, Sivas, Mamuret, Erzerum).

C. Western Taurus (Taurus proper; Adana, Konia, Aidin).

1. Cilician Taurus, consisting of Ala Dagh, Bulghar Dagh, Sumak Dagh, and Haji Baba.
2. Pamphylian Taurus.
3. Lycian Taurus.

D. Isolated Mountains (Konia and Angora).

1. Kara Dagh (7600 ft.).
2. Karaja Dagh.
3. Hassan Dagh (7700 ft.).
4. Koja Dagh.
5. Erjish Dagh (13,000 ft.); highest point in Anatolia.

ANTI-CAUCASUS (Northern Armenia).

PONTIC MOUNTAINS (Black Sea Coast).

WEST ANATOLIAN RANGES (Brussa, Aidin).

Keshish Dagh (Olympus), 8300 ft.
Kaz Dagh (Ida), 5500 ft.

SYRIAN MOUNTAINS—

1. Jebel-el-Ansariyeh.
2. Lebanon; Dhor-el-Khodih, 10,200 ft.
3. Anti-Lebanon.
4. Hermon; Kasr Antar, 9050 ft.
5. Palestine Highlands.

ARABIAN MOUNTAINS—

1. West Coast Range (various names).
2. South Coast Range (various names).
3. Jebel Shammar or Aja and Jebel Selmah (water-shed in north).
4. Jebel Tueik, Jebel Menakib, &c., in centre.

Principal Rivers

FLOWING TO BLACK SEA—

Chorokh (360 miles).
Yeshil Irmak (Iris).
  Chekerek Irmak (left).
  Kelkit Irmak (Lycus; right).
Kizil Irmak (Halys; 600 miles).
  Delije Irmak (right).
  Geuk Irmak (left).
Sakaria (Sangarius).
  Pursak (Tembris; left).
  Enguri (right).

FLOWING TO SEA OF MARMORA—

Susurlu (Macestus).
  Edrenos (Rhyndacus; right).
Bigha (Granicus).

FLOWING TO THE DARDANELLES—

Mendere (Scamander).

FLOWING TO THE ÆGEAN SEA—

Bakir (Caicus).
Gediz (Hermus).
  Kum (Phrygius; right).
  Kuzu (Cogamus; left).
Kuchuk Mendere (Caystrus).
Mendere (Mæander).
  Glacus, Banaz (Senarus), Hippurius — Right.
  Churuk (Lycus), Ak (Harpasus), China (Marsyas) — Left.

FLOWING TO THE MEDITERRANEAN—

In Asia Minor:
Gereniz (Indus).
Eshen (Xanthus).
Ak (Cestrus).
Keupri (Eurymedon).
Menavgat (Melas).
Geuk (Calycadnus).
  Buzakene (left).
Tersus (Cydnus).
Sihun (Sarus).
  Kerkhun (right).
Jihun (Pyramus).
  Ak (left).

In Syria and Palestine:
Nahr el-Asi (Orontes).
  Kara, Afrin — Right.
Nahr el-Kebir (near Ladikiyeh).
Nahr el-Kebir (Eleutherus).
Nahr el-Kelb (Lycus).
Nahr el-Litani (Kasimiyeh; Leontes).

FLOWING TO THE PERSIAN GULF—

Euphrates (1730 miles).
  Kara, Murad — Head-streams.
  Tokhma, Sajur — Right.
  Belikh, Khabar — Left.
Tigris (forms Shat-el-Arab with Euphrates; 1120 miles).
  Upper Zab, Lower Zab, Adhem, Diyala — Left.
Wadi Ermek (er-Rumma).

NOT REACHING THE SEA—

In Syria and Palestine:
Kuweik (past Aleppo).
Nahr Barada (Abana; Damascus).
Nahr el-Awaj (Pharpar; near Damascus).
Jordan (to Dead Sea; 200 miles).
  Sheriat el-Menadireh (Yarmuk), Wadi el-Arab, Nahr ez-Zerka (Jabbok) — Left.
  Nahr Jalud, Wadi Faria — Right.
Wadi Zerka Main (to Dead Sea).
Wadi Mojib (Arnon; to Dead Sea).

In Arabia:
Wadi Sirhan.
Wadi el-Homth.
Wadi Dawasir.
Wadi Sher.

Principal Lakes

IN ASIA MINOR—

Tuz-göl, Bei-shehr, Soghla, Ak-shehr — South.
Maniyas, Abullion, Isnik — North-west.

IN ARMENIA AND KURDISTAN—
Van (1450 sq. miles).

IN SYRIA AND PALESTINE—
Ak Deniz.
Birket Ateibeh.
Bahret-el-Huleh (Waters of Merom).
Bahr-et-Tabariye (Sea of Galilee or Tiberias).
Dead Sea (Bahr Lut; 360 sq. miles).

IN MESOPOTAMIA—
Nejef.

Principal Productions

I. *Vegetable Products*—
Barley, wheat, and other cereals, turnips, cabbages, potatoes, onions, beet-root, carrots, linseed, dari-seed, tobacco (especially Latakia), cotton, tomatoes, melons, apples, pears, apricots, grapes and raisins, figs, almonds, walnuts, pomegranates, cherries, oranges (notably Palestine), lemons, sesame, valonia, olives, pistachios (chiefly Aleppo), liquorice-root, beans, chick-peas, opium, gums, gall-nuts, dates (Mesopotamia and Arabia), til-seed, many kinds of timber, khat and coffee (Arabia), sugar (Arabia), aloes and olibanum (Arabia), &c.

II. *Animals and Animal Products*—
Sheep, goats, cattle, horses, camels; silk-worms; sponges, coral, pearls; fish, &c.

III. *Minerals*—
Copper (chiefly Trebizond vilayet), zinc, manganese, lead, silver, iron, antimony, meerschaum (Eskishehr and Kutaia), natron and bitumen (Palestine), emery (Smyrna), coal (Brussa and Black Sea coast), salt, &c.

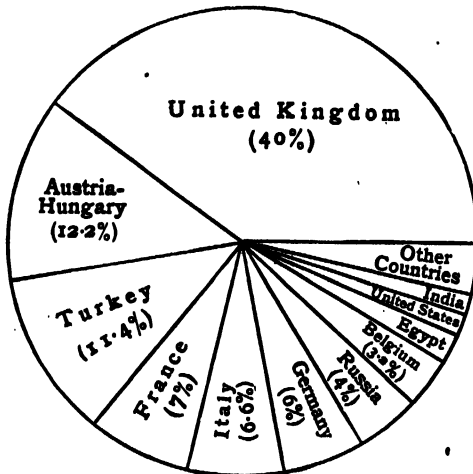
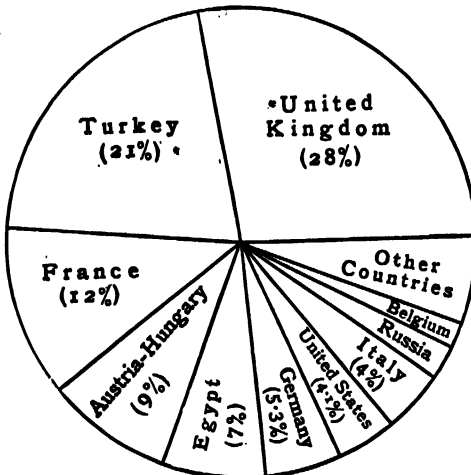
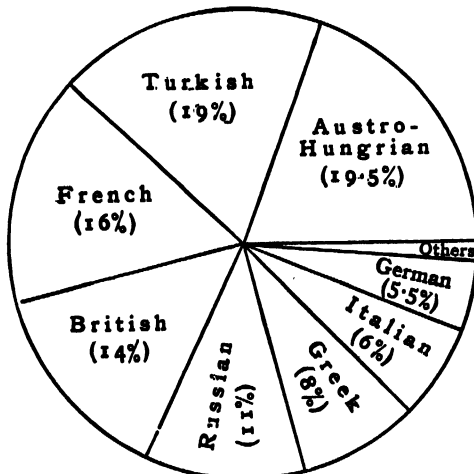
IV. *Manufactures*—
Cotton and silk goods, mohair, soap (especially Aleppo and Antioch), gold and silver work, metal wares, furniture and inlaid woodwork (Damascus), wines (Palestine, &c.), ropes (Damascus), starch, saw-milling, flour-milling, olive-oil, earthenware, leather, kamar-ed-din (apricot paste, Damascus), glue, saddlery, dyeing, biscuits (Damascus), carpets (especially Smyrna, &c.).

Principal Ports and other Centres of Trade

All the following places, except those marked with an asterisk, are seaports.

Ports or Trade Centres.	Imports.	Exports.	Tonnage Entered.
ASIA MINOR—			
Rizeh	£117,000	£30,000	—
Trebizond ...	1,710,720	691,640	672,110
Tireboli... ...	32,480	52,930	—
Kerassond ...	195,930	221,130	458,280
Ordou	125,200	94,960	—
Samsun	594,500	1,235,650	766,690
Sinope	—	—	—
Aivali	206,000	1,049,000	169,950
Mitylene ...	—	—	932,120
Smyrna	2,804,780	4,275,240	2,243,460
Vourlah	—	—	—
Scio	221,700	350,000	733,500
Rhodes	180,000	35,000	372,220
Adalia	144,090	164,170	67,050
Mersina	629,450	1,802,400	452,900
*Adana	—	—	—
*Angora, Konia, and other interior towns ...	—	—	—
SYRIA AND PALESTINE—			
Alexandretta ...	2,404,470	1,321,730	347,290
*Aleppo	—	—	—
Snedia	—	—	—
Latakia	75,000	100,000	120,510
Tripoli	480,000	500,000	343,990
Beirut	1,258,950	692,280	1,106,270
*Damascus ...	780,670	386,700	—
Sidon	—	—	48,220
Haifa and Acre	—	—	278,660
Jaffa	439,780	322,340	589,250
ARABIA—			
Yambo (port of Medina) ...	—	—	—
Jedda (port of Mecca) ...	800,000	40,000	320,000
Loheia	—	—	—
Camaran (British Island) ...	—	—	110,000
Hodeida ...	450,000	500,000	65,000
Mocha	—	—	—
Aden (British) ...	3,340,000	2,800,000	2,721,000
Mokalla ...	—	—	—
Muscat	280,000	220,000	170,370
Manameh (Bahrein Islands) ...	635,500	650,430	99,377
El-Katif... ...	—	—	—
Koweit	—	—	—
MESOPOTAMIA—			
*Bassora	1,255,430	1,296,780	195,510
*Bagdad	1,924,050	723,240	—
ARMENIA—			
*Erzerum... ...	292,700	195,310	—
*Van	175,290	138,070	—
*Bitlis	41,450	32,000	—
*Diarbekir ...	274,570	134,720	—
CYPRUS—			
Larnaka, Limasol, Famagusta, &c.	403,000	271,000	690,000

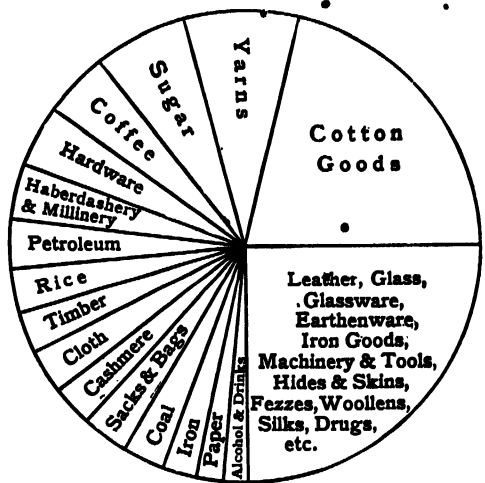
The ports referred to in the following two diagrams are: Smyrna, Alexandretta, Mersina, Beirut, Damascus, Jaffa, Trebizond, and Samsun.

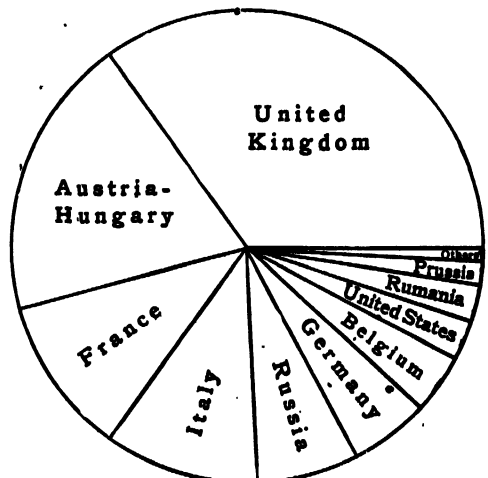
Those referred to in the third diagram are the above, without Damascus, and together with Tripoli, Latakia, Haifa, Acre, Sidon, Aivali, Rhodes, Scio, and Kerassond.

Principal Sources of the Imports at the Chief Ports of Asia Minor and Syria

Principal Countries of Destination of the Exports at the Chief Ports of Asia Minor and Syria

Distribution according to Nationality of Shipping Tonnage entered at the Chief Ports of Asia Minor and Syria. (Total Tonnage, 8,700,000).

The Trade of Smyrna

Smyrna, the most important seaport of Turkey in Asia, is the capital of the vilayet of Aidin, in western Asia Minor. It stands near the head of the Gulf of Smyrna, a magnificent inlet which forms a fine natural harbour. Of its population of 200,000, from 60 to 70 per cent are Greeks, the others being Turks, Jews, and Armenians chiefly. The various nationalities occupy separate quarters of the town. The trade of Smyrna is a good index to the commerce of Asia Minor as a whole.

A. Imports

The following circle diagram shows the principal imports at the port of Smyrna, and their relative values according to recent returns:—

Principal Commodities imported at Smyrna

The following circle diagram shows the proportions in which the imports of Smyrna are obtained from the principal countries of origin:—

Principal Sources of Origin of the Imports at Smyrna

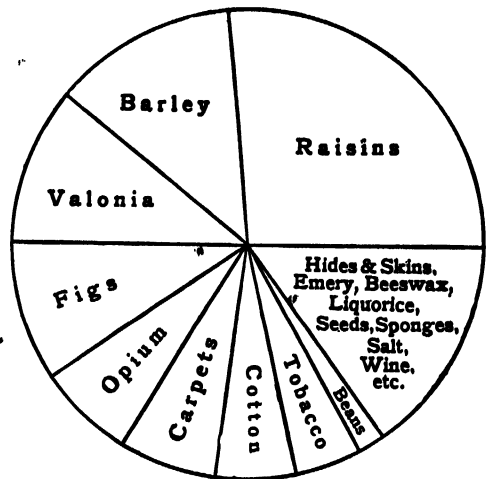
The following diagram shows the countries of origin of the principal imports at the port of Smyrna:—

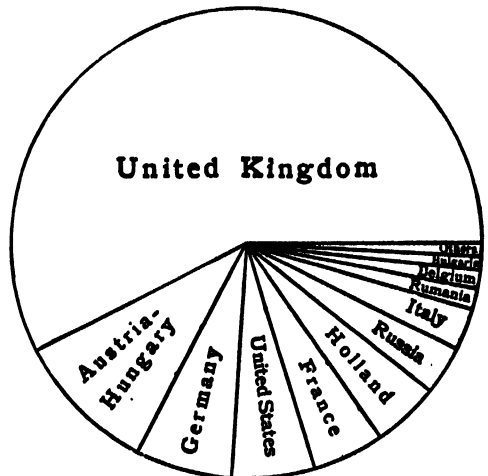
Commodity	Countries of origin	
Cottons	United Kingdom	Italy, U.S.A., France, etc.
Yarns	United Kingdom	Italy, Austria, Germany, etc.
Sugar	Mostly Austria-Hungary: also Russia.	
Coffee	Mostly France & Italy	
Hardware	Austria, Germany, France, United Kingdom, Italy, Belgium, etc.	
Haberdashery, etc.	Mostly Austria-Hungary: also U.K., France, Germany, Italy.	
Petroleum	Russia	
Rice	United Kingdom	Italy, etc.
Timber	Mostly Rumania: also Russia & Austria.	
Fine Cloth	Austria-Hungary	
Cashmere	United Kingdom	Austria, Germany, France, Belgium.
Sacks & Bags	India & United Kingdom	
Coal	United Kingdom	
Iron	Mostly Belgium: also U.K. & Germany.	
Paper	Mostly Austria & Italy	
Glass, etc.	Belgium, Austria, Germany, U.K., France, Italy.	
Leather	France	Austria, Germany, U.K.
Machinery & Tools	United Kingdom	Austria, France, Belgium.
Silks	Mostly France	
Woollens	Mostly United Kingdom & France	

Sources of the Principal Commodities imported at Smyrna

B. Exports

A glance at the varied exports of the port of Smyrna will give an excellent idea of the natural resources of the peninsula of which it is the chief commercial outlet. The first of the following circles shows the more important arranged in the order of their importance. A few others of less importance may be named here with advantage: Almonds, aniseed, antimony, silk, chrome, gall-nuts, gum tragacanth, millet, mohair, olive-oil, sponges, walnut, wheat, and wool.

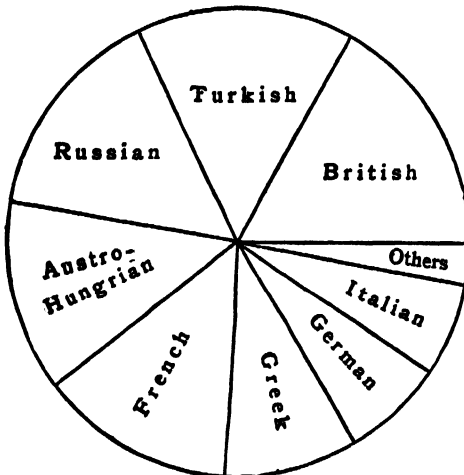
The following circle diagram shows the principal exports from the port of Smyrna, and their relative values according to recent returns:—

Principal Commodities exported from Smyrna

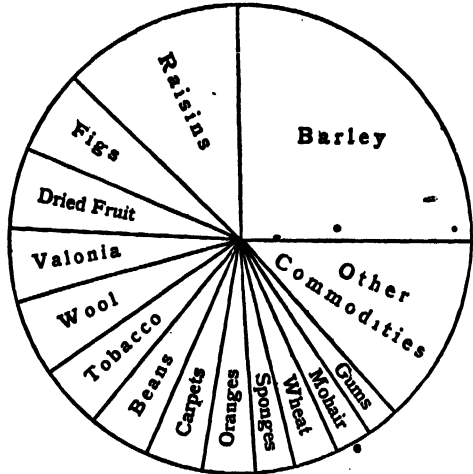
The following circle diagram shows the proportions in which the exports of Smyrna are taken by the principal countries of destination:—

Principal Countries of Destination of the Exports from Smyrna

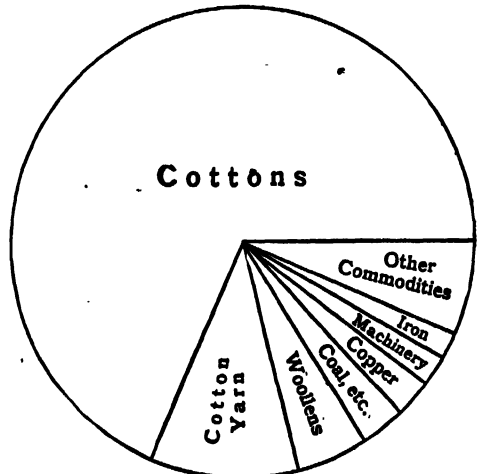
The following diagram shows the countries of destination of the principal exports from the port of Smyrna:—

Commodity	Destination	
Sultana Raisins	United Kingdom	Austria, Germany, Holland, U.S.A. etc.
Barley	Almost all to United Kingdom	
Valonia	Mostly United Kingdom: also Austria, Russia, Italy, etc.	
Figs	United Kingdom	United States, etc.
Opium	United Kingdom	Austria, Germany, U.S.A., France, etc
Carpets	United Kingdom	France, Austria, Germany
Cotton	Austria, France, United Kingdom, Germany, Spain, Holland.	
Tobacco	United States, Continent, United Kingdom.	
Beans	Almost all to United Kingdom	
Liquorice	United States	France, United Kingdom.
Sponges	Mostly United Kingdom: France & Continent.	
Wine	Almost all to Italy	

C. Shipping

The following circle diagram shows the distribution among the principal flags concerned of the tonnage that entered the port of Smyrna in a recent year:—

Trade of the United Kingdom with Asiatic Turkey

The following circle diagram shows the principal commodities imported from Asiatic Turkey into the United Kingdom, and their relative values according to Board of Trade returns. The total value was £4,548,810 in 1906.

Principal Commodities imported into the United Kingdom from Asiatic Turkey

The following circle diagram shows the principal commodities exported by the United Kingdom to Asiatic Turkey, and their relative values according to Board of Trade returns. The total value was £4,450,206 in 1906.

Principal Commodities exported by the United Kingdom to Asiatic Turkey

Britain also re-exported to Asiatic Turkey in 1906 foreign and colonial merchandise to the value of £105,819. The chief items in this were cotton manufactures, raw coffee, jute manufactures, tea, iron and steel, tin, raw hides, candles, pepper and other spices.

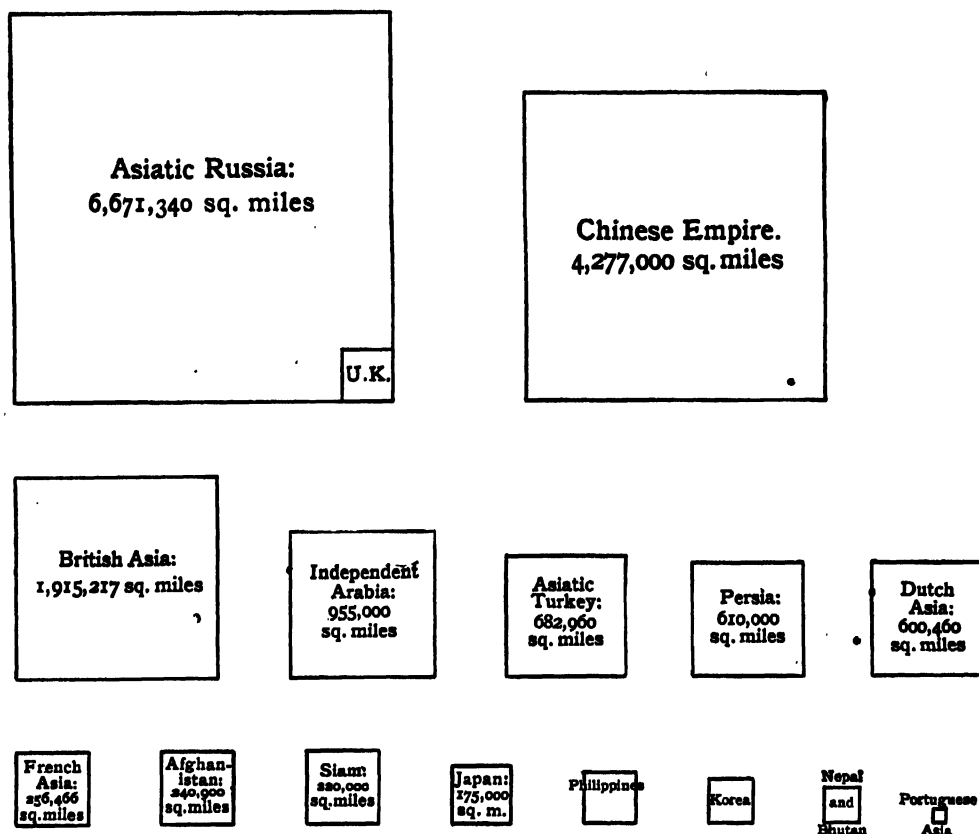
Railways

Lines.	Length in Miles.
Anatolian Railway (German)—	
Haidar Pasha—Ismid—Eskishehr—Angora	360
Angora—Kaisariyeh (authorized)	264
Kaisariyeh—Sivas—Erzerum (proposed)	—
Eskishehr—Afiun Karahissar—Konia	276
Konia—Adana—Diarbekir—Mosul—Bagdad (proposed)	—
Konia—Adana—Alexandretta—Aleppo—Bagdad (proposed)	—
Mudania—Brussa Railway (German)	25
Smyrna—Manisa—Alashehr—Afiun Karahissar (German)	360
Manisa—Soma branch	57
Aidin Railway (British)—	
Smyrna—Aidin—Dineir (with branches)	320
Mersina—Tarsus—Adana (French)	45
Beirut—Ryak—Damascus (French)	95
Damascus—Mezerib (Hauran line)	65
Mezerib—Maan—Mecca (begun)	1035
Ryak—Baalbek—Homs—Hama	115
Hama—Aleppo—Euphrates (projected)	—
Acre—Haifa—Hauran line (British; incomplete)	157
Jaffa—Jerusalem (French)	54
Total Length	3228

ASIA

General Table of Area and Population

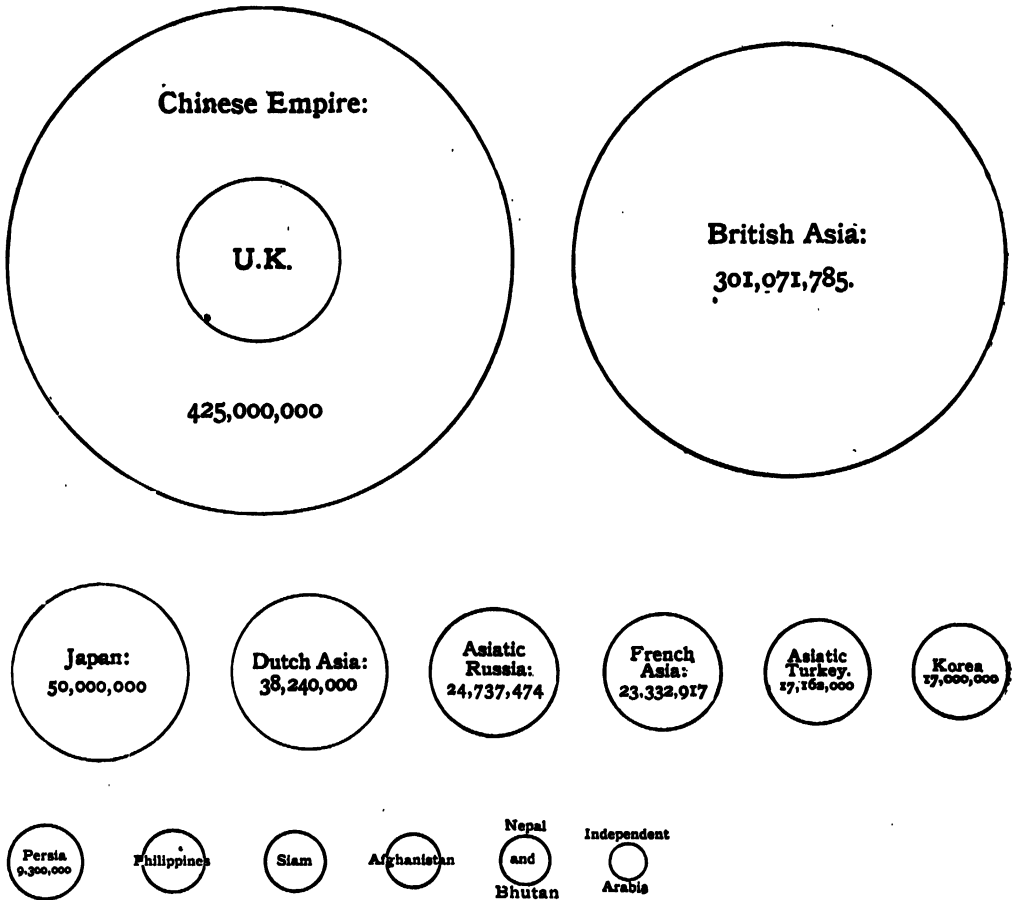
Divisions.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
INDEPENDENT STATES—		
Chinese Empire	4,277,000	425,000,000
Korea	84,000	17,000,000
Japanese Empire	175,000	50,000,000
Siam	220,000	6,000,000
Nepal	54,000	4,000,000
Bhutan	16,800	250,000
Afghanistan	240,900	5,000,000
Persia	610,000	9,300,000
Independent Arabia	955,000	2,000,000
Total Independent	6,632,700	518,550,000
BRITISH POSSESSIONS—		
Indian Empire (including Aden, Sikkim, &c.)	1,769,460	294,420,070
Ceylon	25,335	3,578,333
Maldive Islands (Dependency of Ceylon)	120	30,000
Straits Settlements and Dependencies	36,757	1,452,382
British Borneo	79,030	760,000
Hong-Kong and Territory	420	400,000
Wei-hai-wei and Territory	285	125,000
Bahrein Islands	230	68,000
Cyprus	3,580	238,000
Total British	1,915,217	301,071,785
RUSSIAN POSSESSIONS—		
Siberia	4,819,420	5,715,689
Central Asia	1,669,510	9,771,684
Caucasia	182,410	9,250,101
Total Russian	6,671,340	24,737,474
TURKISH POSSESSIONS—		
Asia Minor, Syria, Arabia, Mesopotamia, &c.	682,960	17,162,000
DUTCH POSSESSIONS—		
East Indian Islands (excluding New Guinea)	600,460	38,240,000
FRENCH POSSESSIONS—		
French Indo-China (including Kwang-chow-wan)	256,270	23,060,000
French India	196	272,917
Total French	256,466	23,332,917
AMERICAN POSSESSION—		
Philippine Islands	127,858	7,635,426
PORTUGUESE POSSESSIONS—		
Portuguese India	1,638	531,798
Timor (part) and Kambing	6,270	200,000
Macao, &c.	5	80,000
Total Portuguese	7,913	811,798
GERMAN POSSESSION—		
Kiao-chow and Territory	200	20,000
Total Asia	16,895,109	931,561,400

Comparative Areas of the Countries of Asia

The above square diagrams show the relative areas of the political divisions of Asia from Asiatic Russia down to the small territory owned by Portugal in the continent. For comparison a small square representing the area of the United Kingdom on the same scale is placed in a corner of the square representing the area of Russia in Asia.

The diagrams show that the leading European powers in Asia are Russia and Britain, the possessions of the former in this continent being much more extensive than those of the latter. Russian Asia, moreover, is continuous with European Russia, and the Russian Empire, unlike that of Britain, is a continuous empire. Land communications link up all its parts from the Baltic to the Pacific, but these are from several points of view less efficient and valuable than the sea communications of the British Empire. British Asia consists mainly of the great Indian Empire, including the whole Indian peninsula and part of that of Indo-China. The other European powers having considerable possessions in Asia are Holland and France, the former in the islands, the latter on the mainland, in the Indo-Chinese peninsula. Turkey is to be classed rather as an Asiatic than as a European power, and indeed something similar might be said of Russia.

Of the purely Asiatic powers China has the largest territory, but the Chinese Empire is an ill-assorted, unassimilated mass of provinces of very different kinds and value. China proper represents much less than half the whole area of the empire, but it is undoubtedly the most valuable, as it is by far the most populous part. Manchuria, the ancestral home of the race which rules in China, was not long ago the scene of an epoch-making war, which resulted in confirming China's suzerainty over it. Tibet, containing the most sacred city of northern Buddhism, is a sort of ecclesiastical state in nominal subjection to China. Its dependence upon China is explicitly recognized in the Anglo-Russian Treaty of 1907. Mongolia and Chinese Turkestan are extensive lands, but they can never carry large populations, and they will never be of great value to their owners.

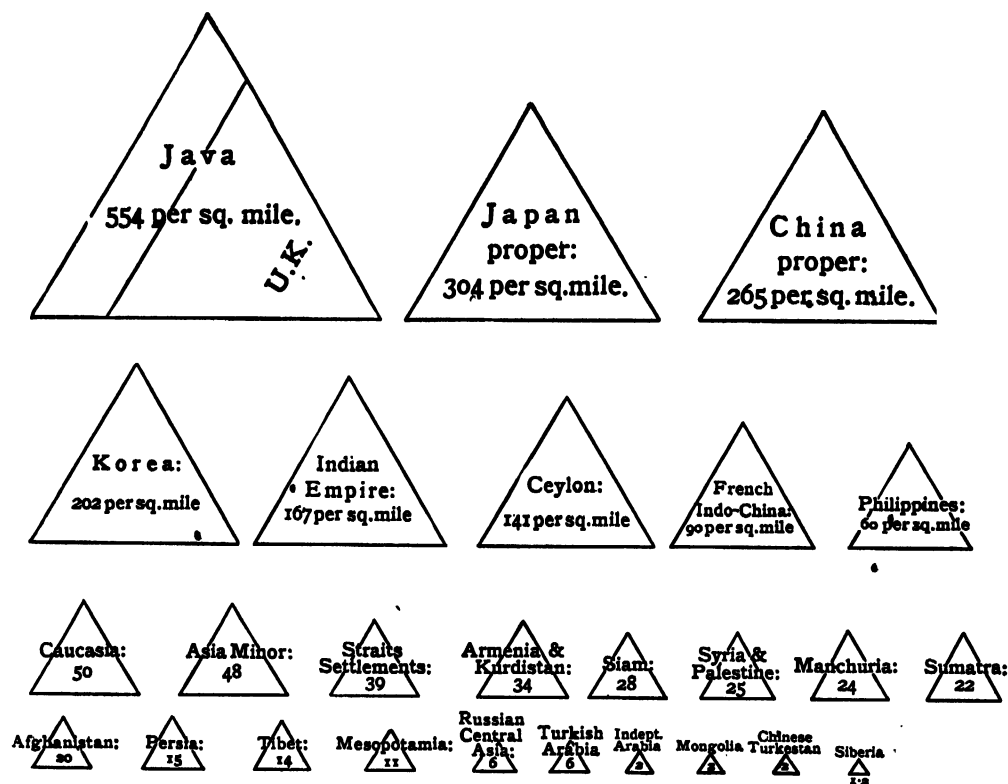
Although China has the most extensive territory of any purely Asiatic power, Japan is by far the greatest of Asiatic nations. Unlike China, she has accepted western civilization with enthusiasm, mingled with prudent eclecticism, and she has vindicated her right to rank as one of the great powers of the world. Her terrible conflict with Russia marks the beginning of a new era in Asia, and possibly of important changes in Europe. Whether she will establish a hegemony in eastern Asia over the Mongolian races is a question for the future, as is also the effect of her meteoric progress upon the British empire in India. Persia has recently shown signs of a democratic awakening, and Turkey has definitely taken her place among constitutional countries.

Comparative Populations of the Countries of Asia

The above circle diagrams show the relative populations of the political divisions of Asia. For the purpose of comparison a circle representing the population of the United Kingdom on the same scale is inserted in that representing the population of the Chinese Empire.

The Chinese Empire is easily first in population among the countries of Asia, as Asiatic Russia is easily first in area. Much the greater part of the population of the Chinese Empire is, as already stated, included within China proper. China proper is, indeed, one of the greatest seats of human settlement in the world. Manchuria, though not the largest of Chinese dependencies, is the most populous, Tibet coming next. Mongolia, although very extensive in area, is not well adapted to human settlement, and accordingly its population is rather scanty. Much of Chinese Turkestan is a forbidding desert, and only in some favoured parts can human beings live and thrive.

British Asia, consisting mainly of the Indian Empire with its teeming millions, comes next in order, and then, a poor third, comes Japan, with a population not much larger than that of the United Kingdom. If, however, Japan should, as some think she will, develop a great yellow empire in eastern Asia, her sway may extend over a greater population than that of the whole British Empire. A Japanese suzerainty of China is possible, but it may be prevented by a spontaneous Chinese development on western lines. An awakened China would be far more formidable than awakened Japan has been, because of her immensely greater human resources.

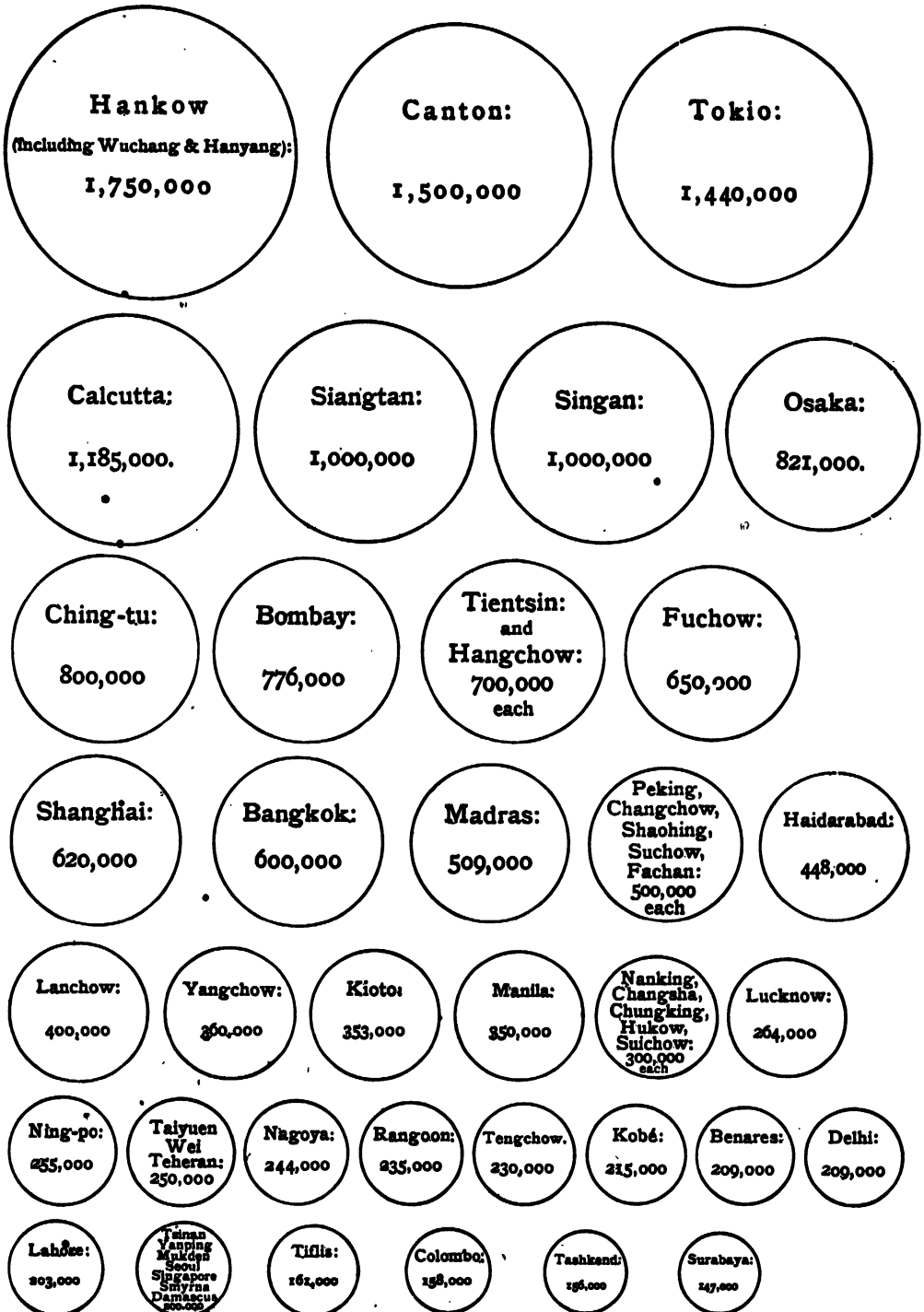
To her flourishing island possession of Java, Holland owes the next place in the order of population among the countries of Asia. Then comes Asiatic Russia, much humbler in this aspect than in that of superficial extent, and indeed scarcely above the much less extensive empire of France in Asia. Portuguese Asia does not appear among the population diagrams because of the extreme smallness of the circle required to represent it.

Comparative Density of Population in Asia

The above triangular diagrams show the relative densities of the population in the principal political divisions of Asia. The triangle marked off from that of Java represents the density of population in the United Kingdom on the same scale.

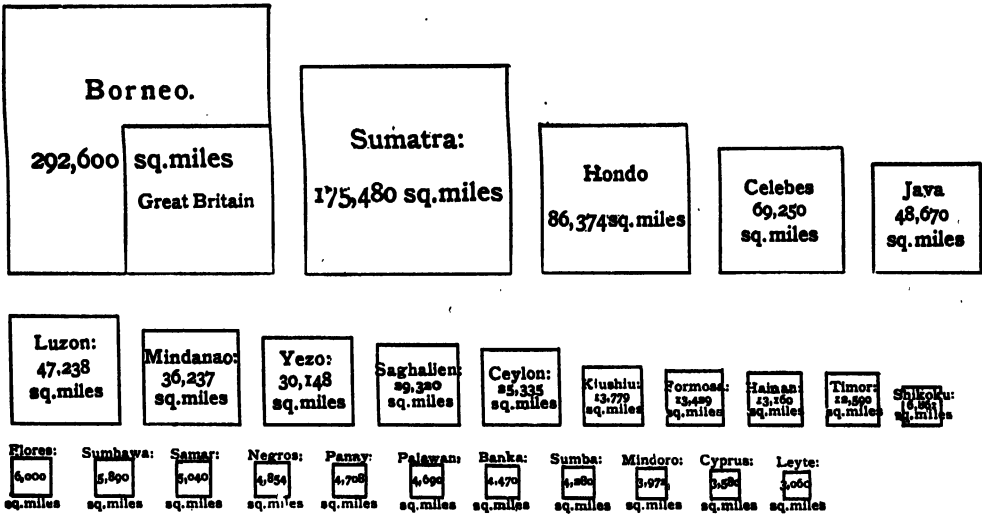
In this set of diagrams the two factors shown separately in the preceding sets of comparative diagrams are combined, and the result is an entirely new arrangement of the Asiatic countries. For the purposes of this comparison it seemed advisable to treat the Chinese Empire in sections instead of as a unit, and accordingly Manchuria, Tibet, Mongolia, and Chinese Turkestan appear in their proper places as distinct from China proper. The same is true of the Dutch East Indies, which are represented by Java and Sumatra separately; of Asiatic Russia, which appears by its divisions of Caucasia, Central Asia, and Siberia; of Asiatic Turkey, represented by triangles for Asia Minor, Armenia and Kurdistan, Syria and Palestine, Mesopotamia, and Turkish Arabia; and of British Asia, here split up into the Indian Empire, Ceylon, and the Straits Settlements.

In drawing conclusions from the above diagrams it is important to bear in mind that they represent the average densities over areas of very different extent. Within each area the density varies considerably from one part to another, and the larger the area the greater the range of density represented within it. Thus, for the Indian Empire as a whole the average density is 167 per square mile, not by any means excessive; but this is the mean for a country which includes Bengal with 586 persons to the square mile and Burma with 44. Even within the smaller area of Bengal there are densely-peopled plain districts and thinly-peopled hill tracts.

The most noteworthy fact brought out by the series of diagrams is the extreme density of the population in Java, the most important island of the East Indian Archipelago. Java has more inhabitants to the square mile than even such a naturally-favoured and long-settled land as the United Kingdom. Next to Java come the islands of Japan proper, more prominent in the order of ratios than in those representing either of the terms of the ratio. China proper is less densely populated than Japan, but there are great variations of density within its wide limits. The Chinese dependencies are far behind China proper in this regard, Manchuria being the first of them. Of the main divisions of Russian Asia only Caucasia has a fair density of population, and even Caucasia is only ninth in order. Siberia has less than two persons to the square mile.

Principal Towns of Asia

The above circle diagrams represent the relative populations of the principal towns of Asia.

Principal Islands of Asia

Comparative Areas and Populations

The above square diagrams show the relative areas of the principal islands of Asia. A square representing the area of Great Britain on the same scale is marked in that of Borneo.

Hondo:
Ireland
33,000,000

Java:
26,950,000

Kiushiu:
6,285,000

Sumatra:
3,825,000

Luzon:
3,750,000

Ceylon:
3,578,000

Shikoku:
3,014,000

Formosa:
2,800,000

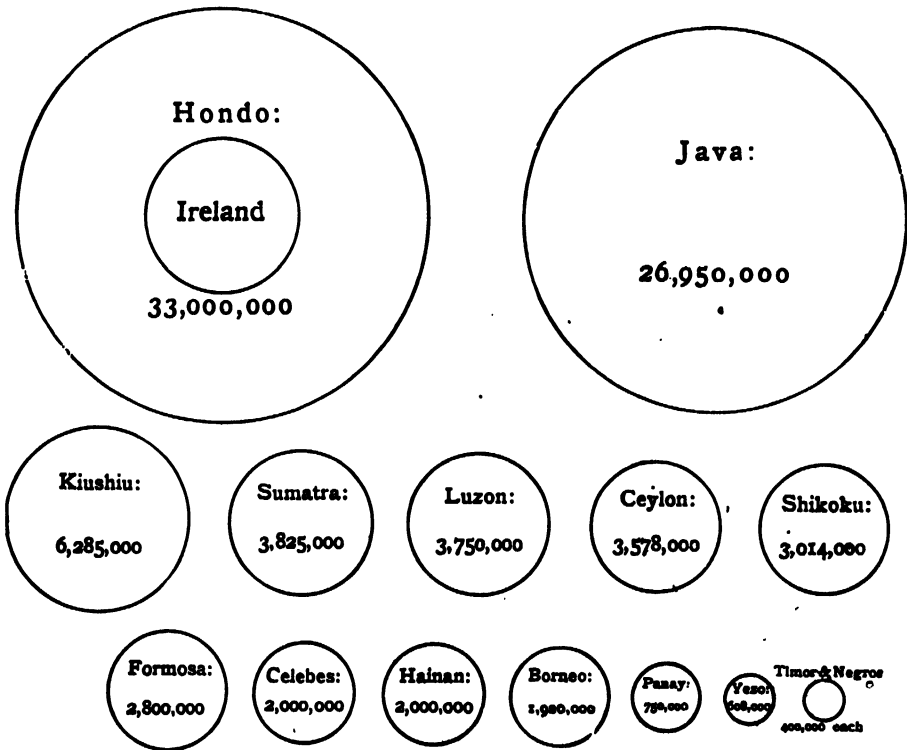
Celebes:
2,000,000

Hainan:
2,000,000

Borneo:

Panay:

Yeso:

Timor & Negros
400,000 each

The above circle diagrams show the relative populations of the principal islands of Asia. The circle within that of Hondo represents the population of Ireland on the same scale.

The Structure of Asia

The accompanying figure is a diagrammatic cross-section of Asia along the meridian of 90° E. The vertical scale is greatly exaggerated (100 times). The lower dotted line gives the mean height of the continent, and the upper is at the height of Mont Blanc, the highest point of Europe.

The following is Prince Kropotkin's classification of the main features in the orography of Asia, as given in the *Geographical Journal* for March, 1904:—

I. The *Great Plateau of West Asia*, including Anatolia, Armenia, and Iran, stretching south-east from the Black Sea to the Indus, bordered both north and south by mountain ranges (Pontic Mountains, Caucasus, Elburz, Kopet Dagh, Hindu Kush, &c., on north; Taurus, &c., on south).

II. The *Great Plateau of East Asia*, still loftier and more extensive, like an inverted South America, extending north-east from the Himalayas to Bering Strait. It is bordered on the southern side by the Himalayas, the Great Khingan Mountains, and the Stanovoi Mountains, and along its northern side by the Thian-Shan Mountains, the Altai Mountains, the Sayan Mountains, the Barguzin and other ranges. It consists of three main terraces:—

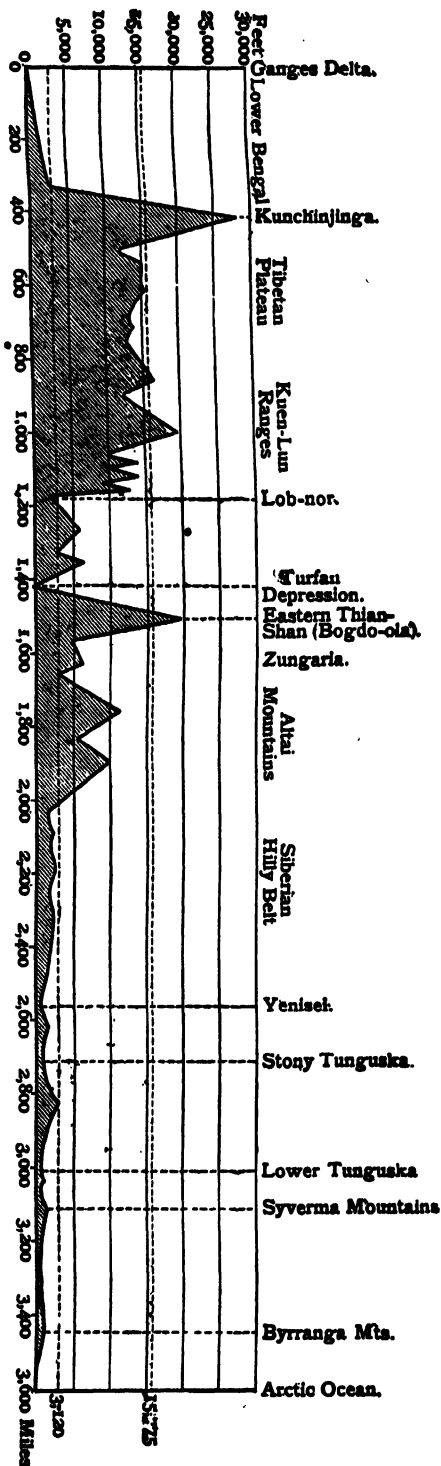
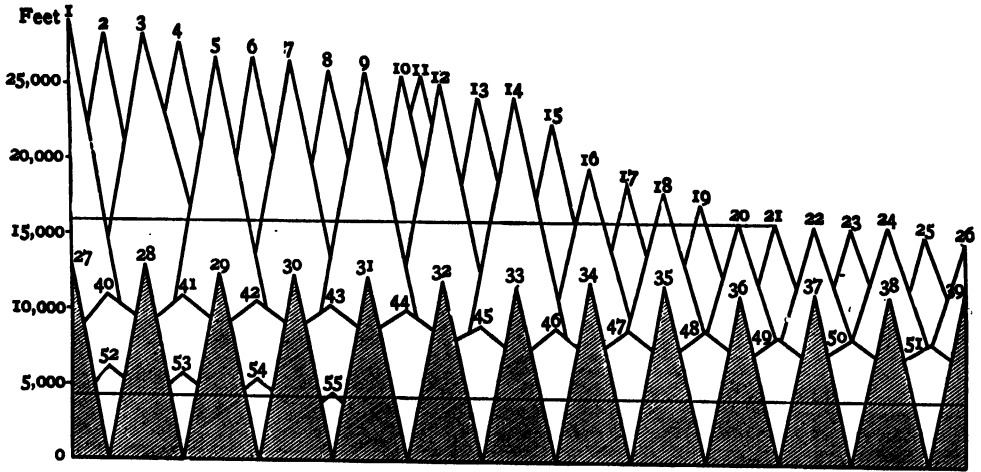
A. The *Tibetan Terrace*, between the Kuen-lun Mountains, the Great Khingan, and the Himalayas, itself consisting of more than one terrace, and having a sort of appendage in the Pamirs, to the west.

B. The *Lower or Middle Terrace*, comprising Chinese Turkestan and the Gobi Desert, between the Kuen-lun on the south and the Altai, Kentei, and Yablonoi Mountains on the north. The Gobi Desert is separated from Chinese Turkestan (the Tarim basin) by the elevated district known as Bei-Shan.

C. The *Higher or Northern Terrace*, extending from the middle terrace to the northern edge of the whole plateau system, and including North-West Mongolia, the Vitim Plateau, and the Aldan Plateau. Between the second and third of the main terraces there is

D. The *Jungarian* (*Zungarian*) *Trench*, which leads with a gentle gradient from the plains of Western Siberia and those of Lake Balkash to the level of the plateau.

Each of the great plateaus, especially the eastern one, is fringed on both sides by an alpine zone of subordinate ranges, and these zones are in turn succeeded by a broad belt of elevated, undulating plain rising to a level of from 1000 to 1500 feet. These plains assume the character of dry steppe in parts on the northern side, but are elsewhere suitable for agriculture and stock-breeding. These high plains pass into lowland plains (Aral-Caspian depression, Siberia, Manchuria, China, Indo-China, India, Mesopotamia, &c.), which in Central Asia assume the character of sandy deserts. The plateau of Ust-Urt breaks the continuity of the Aral-Caspian depression, which is in one part below the level of the sea.

Both belts of lowlands have their own mountains, the most notable being those of Manchuria, Korea, and China. Arabia and the Deccan, or plateau of Southern India, do not belong to the proper Asiatic system. They show more of the physical structure of Africa, and are supposed to be isolated parts of a former Indo-African continent.

The Principal Mountain Peaks of Asia

The above diagram shows the heights of fifty-five of the principal mountain summits of Asia. The upper horizontal line is drawn at the height of Mont Blanc and the lower at the height of Ben Nevis. Following is the key to the numbering of the peaks:—

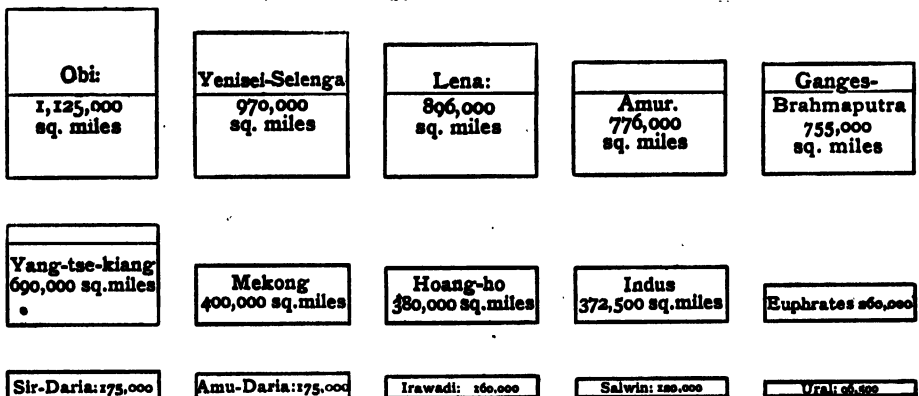
1. Mount Everest (Himalaya).
2. Godwin-Austen (Karakoram).
3. Kunchinjinga (H.).
4. Makalu (H.).
5. Dhaulagiri (H.).
6. Nanga Parbat (H.).
7. Gusharbrum (Karakoram).
8. Mustagh-ata or Tagharma (Thian-Shan).
9. Musharbrum (Karakoram).
10. Nanda Devi (H.).
11. Tirachmir (Hindu Kush).
12. Kaufmann (Trans-Alai Mts.)
13. Khan-tengri (Thian-Shan).
14. Chumalarhi (H.).
15. K 17 (Kuen-lun).
16. Demavend (Elburz).
17. Elbruz (Caucasus).
18. Ugas-bas (T.).
19. Ararat (Armenia).
20. Savalan (Elburz).
21. Semenov (T.).
22. Klyuchevskaya Sopka (Kamchatka).
23. Sikaram (Safed-Koh).
24. Talgarnyn (T.).
25. Byelukha (Altai).
26. Morrison (Formosa).
27. Kinabalu (Borneo).
28. Erjish Dagh (Asia Minor).
29. Sylvia (Formosa).
30. Fujiyama (Japan).
31. Alas (Timor).
32. Luse (Sumatra).
33. Semeru (Java).
34. Korinchi (Sumatra).
35. Rinjani (Lombok).
36. Munku-Sardik (Sayan Mts.).
37. Mus-tau (Tarbagatai).
38. Takht-i-Suliman (Suliman Mts.).
39. Slamat (Java).
40. Camiguin (Philippines).
41. Apo (Philippines).
42. Agung (Bali).
43. Dhor-el-Khodih (Lebanon).
44. Bonthain (Celebes).
45. Hermon (Palestine).
46. Paik-tu-san (Korea).
47. Anamudi (Anamalai Mts.).
48. Dodabetta (Nilgiri Hills).
49. Keshish Dagh (Asia Minor).
50. Pedrotallagalla (Ceylon).
51. Sokhondo (Stanovoi Mts.).
52. Samsa Parvat (Western Ghats).
53. Abu (Aravalli Mts.).
54. Telpos-iz (Urals).
55. Dhupgarh (Satpura Hills).

The Principal Rivers of Asia

Yang-tse-kiang: 3500 miles.
Obi: 3250 miles. Also Yenisei-Selenga
Lena: 2850 miles.
Amur: 2750 miles.
Mekong: 2600 miles.
Hoang-ho: 2500 miles.
Indus: 1950 miles.
Brahmaputra: 1800 miles.
Sir-Daria. 1780 miles.
Euphrates: 1730 miles.
Salwin: 1600 miles.
Ganges: 1500 miles.
Amu-Daria: 1380 miles.
Ural: 1335 miles.
Olenek: 1250 miles.
Irawadi & Sikiang: 1000 miles.
Kolima & Ili: 1000 miles.
Indigirka: 950 miles.
Godaveri: 900 miles.
Taz & Kura: 830 miles.
Kistna & Nerbudda: 800 miles.
Songka, Yana, Meinam: 750 miles.
Liao-ho: 700 miles.
Tejend & Heri-rud: 650 miles.
Helmand & Aras: 640 miles.
Jambi, Barito, Kizil-Irmak: 600 miles.

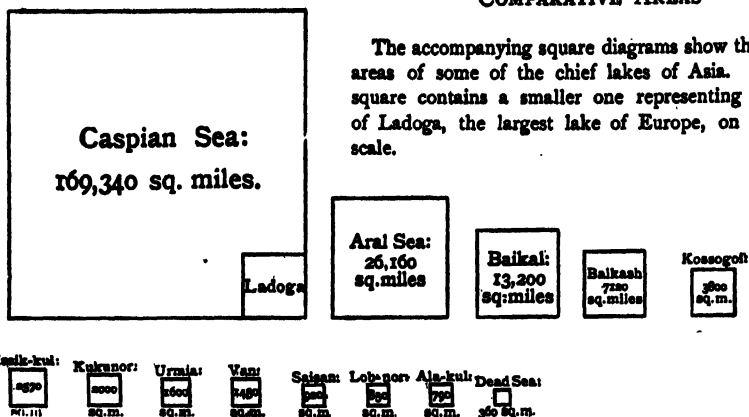
Luni: 300 miles.
Yalu: 300 miles.
Solo: 310 miles.
Mahi: 350 miles.
Pei-ho & Pyasina: 350 miles.
North Penner: 355 miles.
Chorokh: 360 miles.
Terek: 390 miles.
Ishikari: 400 miles.
Murghab & Tapti: 400 miles.
Musi & Kuma: 400 miles.
Dhamra: 410 miles.
Anadyr: 450 miles.
Zarafshan & Cauvery: 450 miles.
Kutei & Sefid-rud: 450 miles.
Khatanga: 460 miles.
Sary-su & Kapuas: 500 miles.
Mahanadi: 520 miles.
Kuban: 550 miles.
Chu: 570 miles.

The above diagram shows the relative lengths of the most important rivers of Asia. The lengths of the Volga and the Thames are marked off from some for comparison.

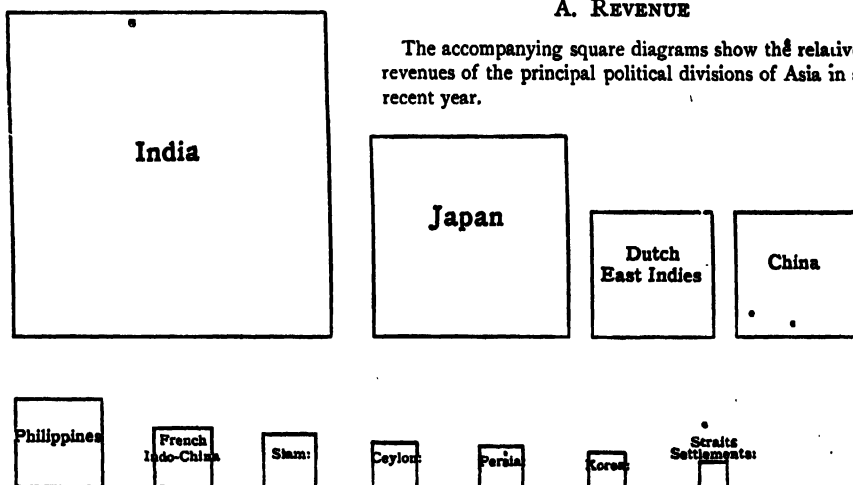
Obi: 1,125,000 sq. miles
Yenisei-Selenga 970,000 sq. miles
Lena: 896,000 sq. miles
Amur. 776,000 sq. miles
Ganges-Brahmaputra 755,000 sq. miles
Yang-tse-kiang 690,000 sq. miles
Mekong 400,000 sq. miles
Hoang-ho 380,000 sq. miles
Indus 372,500 sq. miles
Euphrates 260,000
Sir-Daria: 175,000
Amu-Daria: 175,000
Irawadi: 160,000
Salwin: 120,000
Ural: 96,500

The above diagrams show the relative drainage-areas of the principal rivers of Asia. The basin of the Volga is marked off from some of them

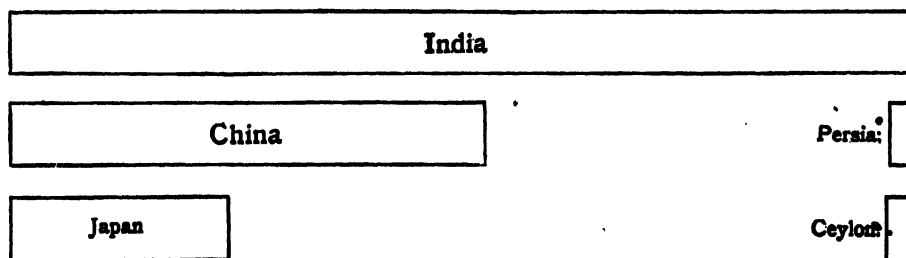
Principal Lakes of Asia

Comparative Areas

The accompanying square diagrams show the relative areas of some of the chief lakes of Asia. The first square contains a smaller one representing the area of Ladoga, the largest lake of Europe, on the same scale.

Comparative Financial Diagrams

A. Revenue

The accompanying square diagrams show the relative revenues of the principal political divisions of Asia in a recent year.

B. Public Debt

The following rectangular diagrams represent the relative values of the public debts of some of the principal political divisions of Asia in a recent year:—

The Commerce of Asia

The following circle diagrams show the relative values of the total trade of the principal commercial countries of Asia in a recent year. The shaded sector of each circle denotes imports, and the unshaded, exports.

India (Seaborne)

Chin[illegible] (Open Ports)

Japan

Straits Settlements

Dutch East Indies

Asia Minor & Syria

French Indo-China

Ceylon

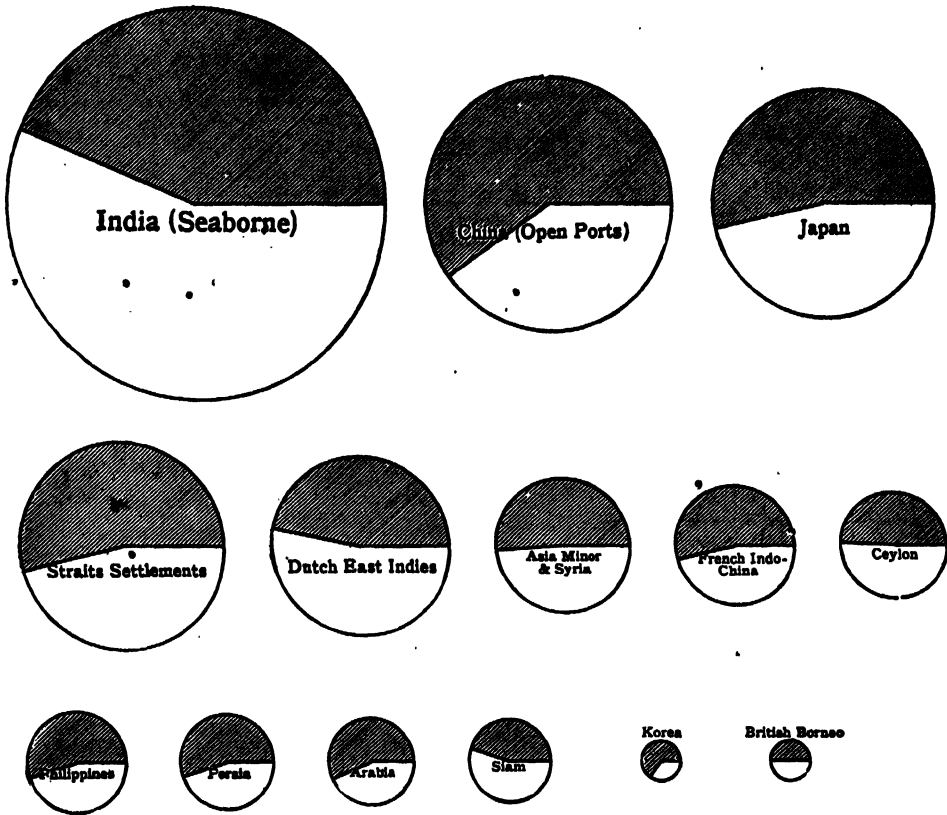
[illegible]hilippines

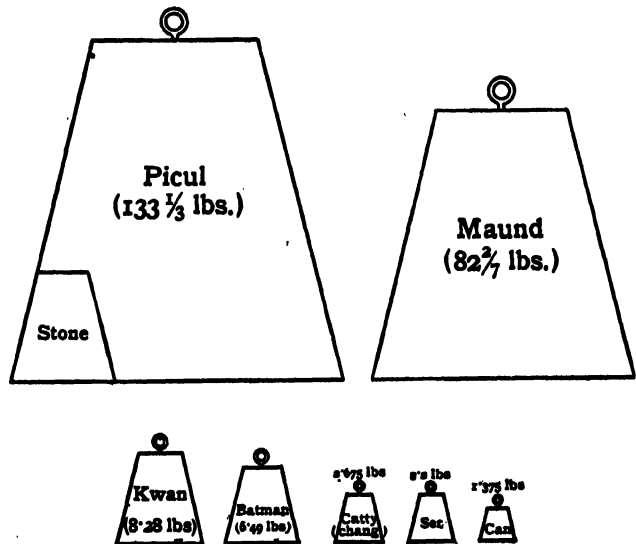
Persia

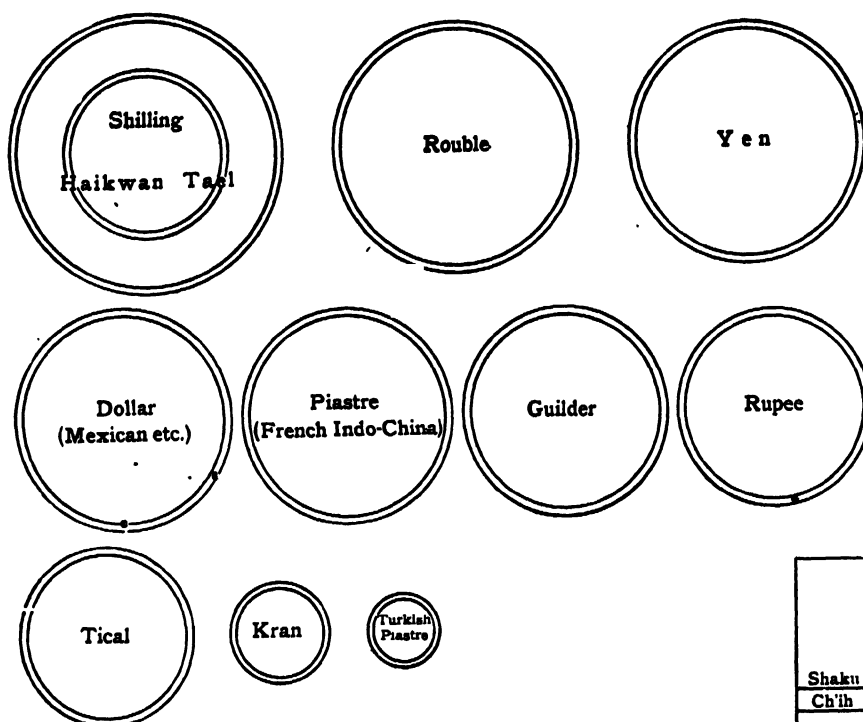
Arabia

Siam

Korea

British Borneo

Principal Units of Weight in Asia

The accompanying diagrams represent the relative values of the chief units of weight in use in Asia. The stone is shown on the same scale for comparison.

The Principal Monetary Units of Asia

Comparative Values

The above circles represent the relative values of the chief monetary units in use in Asia. The circle within the largest represents the shilling on the same scale.

Principal Units of Length in Asia

The accompanying diagram shows the relative size of the principal units of length in use in Asia. Each is measured from the top of the rectangle downwards.